Direction générale
de la coordination
des politiques, de l'analyse
et des systèmes de gestion

Policy Coordination
Analysis & Management
Systems Branch

Canada

YOUTH ECONOMIC ACTIVITY

David P. Ross

for

Social Trends Analysis Directorate

December 1984

This document is part of a series of research reports resulting from work either performed or commissioned by the Social Trends Analysis Directorate. To obtain a copy of the report, please contact the Communications Directorate, Department of the Secretary of State (Ottawa, K1A 0M5).

(The English text is the original version)

Texte français disponible

A list of further research reports on youth already published or to be published can be found at the end of this document.

FOREWORD

There has been a continuing interest by the Secretary of State in youth. This interest has recently been heightened by the International Year of Youth in 1985 and by the situation of young people in Canada today, a situation which, although it presents many problems, also offers new opportunities. The importance attached to youth was emphasized by the appointment of a Minister of State for Youth.

To achieve a better understanding of Canada's young people, a program of research on youth has been developed by the Social Trends Analysis Directorate. Within the framework of this program, two exploratory documents have been produced and they particularly bring to the fore the embryonic state of research on youth. In order to alleviate this gap, seven research reports focussing on specific aspects of young peoples' lives were undertaken. These reports are aimed at gathering, organizing and analysing the available and most relevant information on the topic.

This report was prepared by David Ross, social-economist. In the first part of his report, D. Ross presents a description of the economic situation of youth with an original analysis of official statistics and, in the second part, discusses the repercussions of this situation on the policies related to the labour force and the revenue. A statistical appendix which can be used as a basic data source for future research, completes the analysis.

Needless to say, the author is solely responsible for this study and it should not be taken as reflecting the views of the Department of the Secretary of State.

Jean-Marie Romeder
Director
Social Trends Analysis

SUMMARY

This report on youth economic activity is presented in two parts. Part I presents a statistical profile of youth (defined as those persons between the ages of 15 and 25 years) according to several dimensions: population size and future projections; demographic variables such as age, sex, marital status, living arrangements; education levels; labour force activities such as unemployment rates, participation rates, school attendance and employment; information related to incomes, poverty and expenditure; and youth attitudes and expectations.

Part 2 presents the findings along with their implications for labour market and income policies. There are six major findings.

First, as a proportion of the population, the youth share will diminish considerably in size as the century comes to a close. This does not necessarily mean that the youth problem will "go away". One factor that could sustain youth unemployment is that industrialised countries seem to have reached permanently higher plateaus of unemployment. But if population projections bear up, we should at least not again be faced by a baby boom "bulge" such as we witnessed in the late 60s and 70s, which can exacerbate any unemployment problems.

Second, even though a greater percentage of youth today are employed and engaged by the labour force, there are still unprecedented numbers who want work. Thus, unemployment seems to be the number one economic problem for youth.

Third, women - young and old - earn considerably less than men. Consequently, for women, income differentials pose a problem quite aside from the unemployment problem. Even when women are employed they tend to make less than males.

Fourth, there is evidence from surveys of post-secondary students that, at least among highly trained youth, job mis-matching is a problem. Many youth are not only unemployed but also under-employed (some workers are qualified for better jobs, and some part-time workers want full-time employment). Consequently, there is also a qualitative labour market problem; young people are not obtaining the types of jobs they are trained for, or expect.

Fifth, youth are not simply younger scaled-down versions of adults. And the fact that youth are different in several ways means we must formulate labour market strategies from a youth perspective. This does not imply there is something "wrong" with youth today that is causing their economic problems. The youth unemployment problem is simply part of the growing unemployment problem dating back to 1966. There is a large youth unemployment problem today because there is a large unemployment problem among all age groups. But solutions for the different age groups can vary.

Sixth, youth do not form a homogeneous group. Not only are they different from older workers, they are also quite different among themselves. The 15 to 19 year old group is markedly different from the 20 to 24 year old group - having

an unemployment rate 5 percentage points higher and a labour force participation rate 30 points lower. The younger age group is also much more likely to be living at home with parents, to be single, to be in the labour force on a part-time basis and to be full time students with their major preoccupation being school and not work.

Data also show there are two distinct youth groups when judged by their unemployment experiences. Duration of unemployment and unemployment spell experiences show that about thirty per cent of youth experience both short durations of unemployment and few spells. But on the other hand, about another thirty per cent experience durations of unemployment over 52 weeks and frequent spells of unemployment.

Youth are also differentiated according to where they reside. Youth east of Ontario have higher rates of unemployment and lower participation rates than youth elsewhere in Canada. Consequently, if an objective of labour market policy is to even out the economic opportunities faced by all Canadian youth, and not simply to decrease aggregate youth unemployment, then greater efforts than are being extended today must be directed towards pockets of high unemployment in the eastern region.

The data in Part I show marked differences in demographic and labour market behaviour between the sexes among the young. The relationship between young women and the labour market has changed during the past two decades. Participation rates are up dramatically from 1961 and will almost certainly increase more before they level off, perhaps around the male youth rate. Females aged 15-19 years would have nine percentage points to go, and the 20-24 year olds would have fourteen percentage points to go, if participation rate parity were reached.

Finally, we must recognise that youth fall into three broad groups, each of which is a natural stage of the life-cycle. One group consists mainly of younger youth who are primarily full-time students. Their preoccupation is with school and their relationship to the labour market is at best marginal. Unemployment is not generally a serious concern. A second group consists of those in transition between school and the labour market. Those who are well prepared will suffer only short spells of unemployment as they accommodate themselves to the labour market. However, those that are not well prepared begin to experience long and frequent spells of unemployment, and low wages when they do work. For this second group as a whole, school is now behind them, and they are preoccupied with the labour market.

The third group of youth consists of those who have passed through the transitional stage. One sub-group has passed through and succeeded, and their future career pattern appears fairly well set. Neither the labour market nor school is much of a preoccupation, they are now occupied with their careers and family life. Another sub-group has also passed through the transitional stage, but badly. Their future appears also fairly well established, but characterised by unemployment, public assistance and infrequent low-paying jobs. This group has no career path to occupy them, and just as likely their family lives will be unsatisfactory due to the constant strain of their economic circumstances. The difficult goal of youth education, income and labour market strategies is to try to differentiate among these different youth groups and intercede with responses tailored to the particular needs.

Part 2 presents some broad approaches to labour market strategies based on the findings. Labour market adjustment policies can be summarised by: education policies, such as cooperative education and less sex stereotyping; outreach services for the disadvantaged, with an emphasis on basic education; greater attention to regional disparity; more counselling and information for those experimenting with the labour market; greater opportunities for women to pursue non-traditional jobs; improved part-time conditions, and so on.

However, it should be strongly underlined that these adjustment policies, if correctly pursued, will not likely reduce youth or aggregate unemployment significantly; only more employment opportunities can do that. What these policies can do, however, is accomplish two ends. First, among the youth population, an emphasis on the disadvantaged will allow them to compete more evenly with other youth for the jobs that are available. This would result in there being smaller differences in present unemployment rates and income differentials among segments of the youth population.

The second objective that would be accomplished by adjustment policies is that youth in general would be better able to compete with older workers for whatever jobs are available. In some cases, this would result in increased unemployment for older workers, but the overall effect would be to reduce the unemployment rate and income differentials between older and younger workers.

The main question posed is whether this should be the deliberate intention of youth adjustment policies. Policy makers should be aware that youth labour market policies operating only on the labour supply side are not likely to reduce aggregate unemployment significantly, but only to spread unemployment more evenly among age groups, and between the advantaged and disadvantaged. If aggregate unemployment is to be reduced it will require an expansion of employment opportunities.

As a strategy for expanding employment opportunities the report concludes that a long overdue, and badly neglected approach to employment creation would recognise that within the whole spectrum of economic activity, there are activities that seldom receive sustained policy support. These economic activities, sometimes labelled "informal", or "third sector", encompass small businesses (traditional and non-traditional), cooperatives, collectives, community development organisations, voluntary activity, mutual aid and even household economic activity.

A suggested policy is to establish processes that foster individuals, households and communities to enable themselves to provide for more of their own income and employment needs. And it must be stressed that the objective is to establish a self-sustaining <u>process</u> and not another central government <u>program</u>.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I would like to express my appreciation to the Social Trends Analysis Directorate for supporting this work. Particularly, I would like to thank Linda Demers, who extended considerable help at all stages, and Carmen Frenette.

I would also like to extend my appreciation to Brigid Hayes who prepared many of the tables, provided much research assistance and discussed with me many of the issues raised.

Finally, I would like to thank the anonymous readers who helped improving this document with their judicious comments.

The Social Trends Analysis Directorate would like to acknowledge the contribution of Jean-Pierre Dupuis and Jeanne Landry in the editing process, of David O'Malley, Aerographics, for the graphic designs and Rachel Whissell who was responsible for the transcription of the text.

The analyst responsible for this document is Linda Demers.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

Page

FOREWORD iii
SUMMARY v
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS ix
TABLE OF CONTENTS xi
LIST OF CHARTS xii
LIST OF TABLES IN APPENDIX A xii
LIST OF TABLES IN APPENDIX B xiii
LIST OF TABLES IN APPENDIX C xiii

PART I: Statistical Overview

1. DEMOGRAPHIC DIMENSIONS 1
   1.1 Past and Future Growth 1
   1.2 Marital Status 1
   1.3 Living Arrangements 2
   1.4 Number of Children 3
   1.5 Lone Parents 3
   1.6 Educational Attainment 3
   1.7 Migration 4

2. LABOUR FORCE ACTIVITIES 6
   2.1 Labour Force Participation 6
   2.2 Youth Unemployment 8
   2.3 Full-time and Part-time Employment 13
   2.4 Job Conditions 14
   2.5 Labour Force Activities of Students 14

3. INCOME DIMENSIONS 17
   3.1 Income 17
   3.2 Poverty 18
   3.3 Expenditure 19

PART II: Findings, Implications and Labour Market Policy

1. GENERAL FINDINGS AND IMPLICATIONS 20
2. SOME LABOUR MARKET STRATEGIES 27
   2.1 Labour Supply Adjustment 27
   2.2 Expansion of Employment Opportunities 27

APPENDIX A: Supporting Tables 31
APPENDIX B: Youth attitudes and expectations 87
APPENDIX C: The class of 1976 university and college graduates 99
APPENDIX D: The whole economy 107

BIBLIOGRAPHY 117

LIST OF CHARTS

Chart 1: Youth in the labour force..... 21
Chart 2: Aggregate and youth unemployment rate..... 22

LIST OF TABLES IN APPENDIX A

Table 1: Canadian population aged 15-19 and 20-24, 1961-1981..... 33
Table 2: Population projections for Canada, percentage distribution by age group, 1986-2001..... 34
Table 3: Population aged 15-19 and 20-24, number and percent of population, Canada and provinces, 1971-1981..... 35
Table 4: Marital status, population aged 15-19 and 20-24, Canada 1961-1981..... 36
Table 5: Marital status by sex, population aged 15-19, 20-24, Canada, 1961-1981..... 37
Table 6: Marital status of population, ages 15-19 and 20-24 and provinces, 1981..... 38
Table 7: Living arrangements of youth aged 15-19 and 20-24 by sex and status in household, 1981..... 39
Table 8: Families by number of children at home, heads aged 15-24, Canada, 1971 and 1976..... 40
Table 9: Lone parents aged 15-24 by province, 1971, 1976, 1981..... 41
Table 10: Lone parents aged 15-24, by sex and province, 1981..... 42
Table 11: Out of school population, ages 15-19, 20-24, by level of education and sex, Canada, 1971 and 1976..... 43
Table 12: Population aged 15-19 and 20-24 by sex: number and rate of labour force activity, Canada, 1961-1981..... 44
Table 13: Labour force participation rates by age and sex, Canada and provinces, 1961-1981..... 45
Table 14: Labour Force participation rates by sex and age, Canada and provinces 1979-1982..... 46
Table 15: Labour force participation and unemployment rates of the population aged 15-24, Canada and provinces, 1975-1982..... 47
Table 16: Labour force participation rates, ages 15-16 and 17-19, by sex, 1975-1982..... 48
Table 17: Labour force and non-labour force status by age and sex, Canada and provinces, 1961-1981..... 49
Table 18: Participation and unemployment rates by educational attainment of 15-24 year olds, 1975-1982..... 50
Table 19: Participation rates by marital status, 1977-1982, ages 15-24 and 25 and over..... 51
Table 20: Distribution of labour force by industry, ages 15-24 and 25 and over, Canada, 1976 and 1982..... 52
Table 21: Distribution of labour force by occupation, ages 15-24 and 25 and over, Canada, 1976 and 1982..... 53
Table 22a: Top ten occupations for women, Canada, 1981..... 54
Table 22b: Some expanding occupations for women, Canada, 1971 and 1981..... 54
Table 23: Youth unemployment rates, ages 15-19 and 20-24 years, Canada, 1975-1982..... 55

Table 24: Youth unemployment rates by province, 1976-1982
a) 15-19 years 56
b) 20-24 years 57
Table 25: Unemployment rates by marital status, 15-24 years of age and 25 years of age and over, 1982 58
Table 26: Unemployment rates by industry, age groups 15-24 and 25-54 years, Canada, 1978-1982 59
Table 27: Unemployment rates by occupation, age groups 15-24 and 25-54 years, Canada, 1978-1982 60
Table 28: Percentage distribution of unemployed by reason of leaving last job, and having never worked, age 15-24 years, Canada 1979-1982 61
Table 28a: Duration of Unemployment by sex and age 15-24 years, Canada, 1979-1982 62
Table 29: Percentage distribution of laid off workers by age and number of weeks before re-employment, Canada, 1975 63
Table 30: Percentage distribution of employed persons by number of weeks employed, during the last year, 1980 64
Table 31: Percentage distribution of persons unemployed by number of spells of unemployment, 1980 65
Table 32: Cumulative effects of the unemployment spells of 15-19 year olds over the five year period 1975-1979 66
Table 33: Youth not in the labour force who looked for work in the past six months by reason for not looking in the reference week, 1979 and 1982 67
Table 34: Type of work sought and expectations of working persons wanting work but who did not actively seek work in the reference week, ages 15-24 years, 1979 and 1982 68
Table 35: Full-time and part-time work, ages 15-24 years and total labour force, 1975-1982 69
Table 36: Unemployment rates of full-time and part-time labour force, by age and sex, Canada, annual averages 1976-1982 70
Table 37: Reasons for part-time employment, percentage distribution by age, Canada, 1976-1982 71
Table 38: Number of workmen's compensation claims as percentage of labour force, by age and sex, Saskatchewan, 1975-1977 72
Table 39: Full-time school attendance as percentage of population, ages 15-24 years, 1975-1982 73
Table 40: Full-time school attendance of 15-24 age group by province, annual averages, 1975, 1979 and 1982 74
Table 41: Unemployment and participation rates of youth, 15-19 and 20-24 years who attended school full time in reference week - annual averages, 1975, 1979, 1982 75
Table 42: Labour force participation rates for school attenders aged 15-24 by province, 1975, 1979 and 1982 76
Table 43: Summer participation and unemployment rates - returning students by age and sex, 1978, 1981, 1982 77
Table 44: Summer participation and unemployment rates - non-returning students by age and sex, 1978, 1979, 1982 78
Table 45: Summer unemployment rates, returning students aged 15-24, Canada and provinces, 1982 79
Table 46: Average and median incomes of families ($), by age of head, Canada, 1971, 1976, 1981 80

Table 47: Average and median incomes of families ($) by age and region, 1971 and 1981..... 80
Table 48: Average and median incomes ($) of unattached individuals by sex and age, Canada, 1971 and 1981..... 81
Table 49: Average and median incomes ($) for individuals receiving income by sex and age (under 19 and total), Canada, 1971 and 1981..... 81
Table 50: Average and median incomes ($) individual income receivers by age (20-24 and total) and sex, Canada, 1971 and 1981..... 82
Table 51: Average and median incomes ($) of individuals receiving income 19 years and under by region, 1971 and 1981..... 83
Table 52: Average and median incomes ($) of individuals receiving income by age and region 1971..... 83
Table 53: Average income ($) of individuals receiving income, ages 15-24, by selected characteristics, Canada 1971 and 1981..... 84
Table 54: Average incomes ($) of earners with earnings, by age, sex and employment status, 1981..... 85
Table 55: Family expenditures 1978..... 86

LIST OF TABLES IN APPENDIX B

Table B1: Ranking of the importance of job aspects by age..... 90

Table B2: What unemployed youth would consider doing to get a job, sex, age and region, 1983: Percentages who said "yes" and rank..... 92

Table B3: Degree of confidence in some institutions..... 94

Table B4: Opinion on some government policies related to unemployment..... 96

LIST OF TABLES IN APPENDIX C

C1: Class of 1976 - University and college graduates employment status by sex, 1978.....103
C2: Participation and unemployment rates (as % of total in survey) by sex, class of 76 university or college graduates.....104
C3: Career development indicators of class of 1976 university and college graduates, by sex.....105
C4: Most frequent occupations of class of 1976 university and college graduates employed full time June 1978, by sex.....106

PART I: STATISTICAL OVERVIEW

1. DEMOGRAPHIC DIMENSIONS

1.1 Past and Future Growth

This opening section looks at the size of the youth population, both of the present cohort of youth as it matures, and of future generations of youth. The Canadian youth population, defined as those between the ages of 15-24, increased its share of the Canadian population between 1961 and 1976, growing from 14.2% to 19.4% (Table 1)*. But this growth now seems to have been reversed, since the 1981 Census reports a slight decrease. Youth now comprise 19.1% of the Canadian population. This slight decline in the youth population is attributed to a decrease in the 15-19 year old age group which fell from 10.2% of the population to 9.5% between 1976 and 1981. The 20-24 year old group on the other hand increased in size up to 1981, but not in sufficient numbers to offset the decline in the younger group. As a result, the age group 15-19 which had been larger from 1961 to 1981 than the 20-24 age group, is now smaller. This is attributable to the declining birth-rate and the passing through of the "baby boomers".

Population projections call for a significant decline in the 15-24 age group until 1991, to around 14% of the population, then a stabilisation reflecting an aging society (Table 2). While the share of young persons will decline considerably (27%) from present levels, the current 15-24 cohort as it ages will comprise the most significant age group throughout its lifetime, creating special impacts on the labour force and society as it moves along. One of those consequences is that it is quite likely that future 15-24 year olds, even though they will constitute a relatively smaller part of the population in the future, will face greater numbers of older workers above them closing off relatively more opportunities than today.

The youth population share varies around the canadian average on a province by province basis ranging from 17.8% in B.C. to 21.3% in Alberta. The 15-24 year old population shares, in addition to B.C., are slightly less than the 1981 national average of 19.1% in Ontario, Manitoba and Saskatchewan. The rest are slightly above except for the N.W.T., Alberta and Newfoundland, which all have 20% or more of their populations in the 15-24 age group (Table 3). Quebec, Alberta, British Columbia and the Yukon all had a greater share of their populations in the 20-24 age group in 1981 than in the 15-19 age group. As we noted above, this reflects a national trend, beginning only recently towards an aging population.

1.2 Marital Status

Less than one in twenty-five youth in the younger age group 15-19 years were married in 1981, as opposed to the marital status of those aged 20-24 years where almost four out of ten were married (Table 4). However, the proportion married has declined for both age groups, reflecting a trend towards later marriages. Between 1961 and 1981, the percentage of youth aged 20-24 who were married fell from 45% to 38%. Divorced youth of this same age have increased only slightly since 1961 to 0.5% of all youth aged 20-24 in 1981. Divorce among the younger age group is negligible.

* See tables in Appendix A.

Women get married at an earlier age, and females in both the 15-19 and 20-24 year old age groups have larger shares of married, divorced and widowed than the male group. In the 20-24 age group, the different shares by sex of those married is particularly notable (Table 5). Almost one out of two women in this age group is married, compared to slightly more than one in four men. But while the share of married women is greater, it has declined rapidly since 1961, dropping from 59% to 48% in 1981.

The proportion of those married in the younger female age group has also declined slightly since 1961, but since only 6% of this group were married in 1981 the impact of the decline is much smaller. The share of married males 15-24 years of age has also fallen, but much less rapidly. The share of divorced youth, all ages and both sexes, is very small, less than 1%, but it has increased most noticeably among females aged 20-24 years.

In conclusion, youth of both sexes aged 15-19, and males aged 20-24 are more likely to be single, while women of age 20-24 years are as likely to be married as single, although the proportion of females who are married has dropped since 1961. How does the youth picture compare with the Canadian population in general? The marital status of female youth aged 20-24 compares favourably with that of all Canadian women. But men aged 20-24 years are far more likely to be single than men in general; in 1981, 71.9% of male youth were single compared to 32.3% of all men. These figures reflect the fact that there has been a rise in the age at first marriage, and that men get married at a later age than women.

On a provincial basis, the western provinces and the territories show larger married shares among the 15-19 youth population, while the eastern provinces fall below the national average (Table 6). For the 20-24 age group, every province except Quebec and Ontario have higher married shares than the national average. As a point of information it should be added that "common-law" marriages are considered as married in the above census data.

1.3 Living Arrangements

It is to be expected that married youth live in family arrangements, and with few exceptions, outside the parents' homes. Comparison of the data in Table 7 on living arrangements, with the already presented marital data corroborate this. But what is of most importance is where the unmarried youth live: with parents, with others, or alone?

The data in Table 7 show that as far as 15-19 year olds are concerned, only 4% (or 92,570) live outside a family household, and very few of these live alone (25,000). But with older unmarried youth it is more common to live outside the family: seventeen percent do. Of this percentage slightly more than half live with someone else (including common-law relationships). Living alone is equally typical of both sexes, with there being 175,000 youth aged 20-24 living alone.

Summing up, the 15-19 year olds can be typified as living at home. But the 20-24 year olds are roughly divided 40/40 between living at home or being married, and close to 20% are unmarried and living outside their parents' homes. Overall, almost two-thirds of the total youth population could still be classed as "dependents". This is an important figure to consider in assessing youth economic activity, since it means that one-third of the youth population depend

on the labour market as their major source of support. There is also speculation that perhaps a certain portion of the two-thirds living at home would also wish to terminate their dependent status if economic opportunities were better.

1.4 Number of Children

To pursue the question of dependency further, the data in Table 8 illustrate the number of children that the segment of youth who are heads of families have. This has important implications for economic activity since the dependency of children adds even more importance to labour force attachment.

In 1976, over half of the two parent families had no children at all. On average, all young families had less than one child, although lone-parent families tended to have slightly more children.

1.5 Lone Parents

The share of youth aged 15-24 years who are lone parents increased by 64% between 1971 and 1981 (Table 9). But the share is still small, representing 5% of all young families, although it is rising rapidly. On a provincial basis, lone parents are roughly distributed among the provinces in a pattern one would expect given each province's share of the youth population. Although the rate is up for Quebec and down for Ontario since 1976, the pattern is more stable in other provinces.

Although it comes as no surprise, lone parents are overwhelmingly women, representing 95% of the total in 1981. By province (Table 10), this national share figure is pretty well maintained except for Newfoundland where 91.5% of lone parents are women and in the N.W.T. where 86.9% are. At least until 1976, there has been a large increase in the level of educational attainment among lone parents. In 1971, 24% of lone parents had at least achieved grade 12 or 13, while in 1976, 38% had reached this level. This could be the result of three factors: young women are having children later; they are staying in school longer; or lone parents are now coming from a different educational class.

1.6 Educational Attainment

In 1976, 50% of youth aged 15-19 years and 80% of youth aged 20-24 years did not attend school full-time and were classified in the census as "out of school". With these figures on out-of-school status, neither age group can be defined primarily as a "student" population. (However, one must remember that school attendance fluctuates during the year: a greater number of 15-19 year olds are in school in the winter than in the summer. This is examined in a later section).

For those no longer in school, the typical level of education appears to be secondary school (Table 11). A greater share of 15-19 year olds than 20-24 year-olds who are out of school have only grade 9-10, but similar shares ofthese two age groups have attained grades 12 or 13. The older age group has much higher rates of secondary and post-secondary education but simply because more of them are in the appropriate post-secondary age group. In 1976, 90% of youth aged 15-19 had left school at some point before or at secondary school graduation, while only 60% of youth aged 20-24 had left school by that point.

Finally, both age groups have increased their levels of education between 1971 and 1976 (note that 1981 census data had not been released at the time of writing), especially the youth aged 20-24 years. There are not marked differences by sex, although a greater share of women aged 20-24 years than men have some post-secondary education, and a larger share of females aged 15-19 years have at least grade 11-13 education. Consequently, women appear to have slightly more advanced education levels.

1.7 Migration

As a result of the dramatic shift westward in the population in recent years, Statistics Canada conducted a survey of the characteristics of migrants to Alberta and British Columbia during the period 1976-80. The results shed considerable light on the migratory paterns of Canadian youth. To establish the magnitude of the population shift, it is important to know that about 17% of the working age population (15 years and over) of Alberta and 9% of British Columbia's had migrated there sometime during the period 1976-80.

Alberta is the more interesting province to examine in detail since 40% of all migrants were of the age 15-24 years. In Alberta, young migrants, aged 15-19 years comprised 14% (28,000) of that age group's working age population, while for the 20-24 year olds, migrants comprised about one-third (74,000). These shares tend to be identical for both men and women. Other characteristics also define the young migrants: approximately one-third of the migrants aged 20-24 years had an education level beyond high school; all had at least a high school education; and within the 15-24 year old category, 66% were single.

By "sending" province, Alberta gained almost one-third of its migrants from Ontario, 18% from British Columbia, and about 13% each from Saskatchewan and from outside Canada. While the youth migration from Quebec was only 7% of the total, the study noted that the migration had an impact on the Alberta francophone community, with one in four of the province's francophones in 1980 having migrated there since 1976.

The results also show that for the migrants as a whole, the largest share (30.7%) went to Alberta to look for a job, 26.2% moved with a spouse or parent, 19.4% to accept a job or they were transferred and the rest moved for other reasons. And although it is not broken down by age, only 9% of the migrants to Alberta were unemployed before they moved, and 61% of these people were employed at the time of the survey.

Finally, Alberta youth do not stay still either. During this five year period, 24% of the young migrants to British Columbia came from Alberta.

If these migration data can be generalised, we can learn several important factors involving youth and migration. First, young males and females migrate in equal numbers. Second, migrants tend to be more highly educated than the general working age population (which implies that "sending" provinces are probably losing their better educated.) Third, migrants tend to be single rather than married. Fourth, not many migrants are unemployed before migrating. Therefore, migration should not be typically viewed as a process of the unemployed moving

around the country looking for whatever work they can find. This is not to say, however, that migration has no impact on unemployment. By migrating, migrants may open up jobs, or put less pressure on available jobs in the "sending" provinces and hence permit otherwise unemployed youth to fill these jobs.

Finally, it would be interesting to survey the migrants to Alberta after 1980 when that province's economic fortunes reversed dramatically. It would be interesting to learn how much economically induced migration is permanent. Did a large percentage of the young who were in large part single when they migrated, return to their home provinces following the downturn?

2. LABOUR FORCE ACTIVITIES

2.1 Labour Force Participation

General - Labour force participation rates (defined as the share of a group's population either being employed or seeking work) for young people aged 15-24 have risen steadily since 1961. However in 1982 there was a reversal in this trend (Tables 12 and 14). One out of two youths aged 15-19 and four out of five youths age 20-24 are in the labour force. Women aged 15-19 have only slightly lower participation rates than men, but women aged 20-24 have a 77% rate compared to their male counterparts of the same age who have a participation rate of 91%. However, participation rates for this group of women have been increasing at a fast pace since 1961, growing by 56%.

Participation rates for the general population currently tend to be lower east of Ontario than in the rest of Canada, and the rates for young people tend to mirror this fact. The lowest participation rates for both age groups are found in Newfoundland, while the highest are in Alberta (Table 13). The differences are more pronounced for the younger age group. Males 15-19 have increased their rates in all provinces except Prince Edward Island since 1961, while rates for men 20-24 have declined in the Atlantic region and risen elsewhere. Rates for all young women have increased greatly in all provinces since 1961.

Participation rates since 1979 are recorded in Table 14, providing greater detail of the rise in rates until 1982, although it should be cautioned that these annual data are collected by Statistics Canada's labour force survey and differ somewhat from the previously described census data. The decrease at the national level between 1981 and 1982 in the rate for 20-24 year olds was due principally to decreases in the Quebec, New Brunswick, Alberta and B.C. participation rates. By contrast, an increase of over three percentage points occurred in the rate in Saskatchewan. The participation rates for 15-19 year olds decreased in all provinces in 1982, with the largest decreases recorded for Quebec and Newfoundland. The rates for males aged 15-19 were particularly affected. It would appear that the overall decline in participation rates of 15-24 year olds experienced in 1982, was influenced by a rise in the unemployment rate for that year (Table 15).

Table 16 demonstrates an important distinction that should be made (when data permit) when examining the youth population. Not only are youth aged 15-19 and 20-24 different in terms of their labour force activity, but within the 15-19 age group there is another distinction to be made. Youth 15-19 had a labour force participation rate in 1982 of 52.1%, but those aged 15-16 had a rate of only 34.6% while the rate for those aged 17-19 was 62.4%. Consequently, this older group is more similar in its labour force participation to the 20-24 year old group (79%). Undoubtedly this is due to the weaker attachment to school that the 17-19 year old youth have.

Flows between labour force status - For recent years, we have divided the youth population into four groups: employed, unemployed, not-in-labour force and full-time students (Table 17). This enables an examination of the flows which occur among these four statuses as time and economic conditions change. For example, when the share of the youth group 15-19 years who are employed increases, the flow comes primarily from those who formerly had been full-time students and not from the unemployed. Yet when the reverse occurs, that is, the

employed share drops, the dominant flow is not towards full-time studies, at least not immediately. When the share of 15-19 year olds who are employed declines, the flows into unemployment and full-time student status are about equal. From this limited observation, it seems that a growing economy pulls 15-19 year olds out of school, but when the economy turns down they do not return to student status, in the same number, but rather many enter into unemployment.

On the other hand, youth aged 20-24 years move more consistently between an employed and unemployed status as the percentage of employed increases or decreases. The student share remains relatively constant. This is especially true for males. Until 1981, increases in the percentage of women employed were drawn primarily from the group of women not previously in the labour force. In 1981 and 1982, however, when the number employed decreased, those losing their employment flowed not back out of the labour force but into unemployed status.

This brief analysis of flows among different statuses suggests that increases in employment do not affect the share of unemployed as much as reductions in employment do. Youth of both sexes tend to flow into employment from other than an unemployed status, but flow into unemployment in greater numbers when there is an employment set-back. Consequently, at least in the short term, there appears to be a kind of unemployment "ratchet" effect associated with changes in employment.

Education - Another aspect of youth labour force participation has to deal with levels of education (Table 18). As level of education increases, so too do the labour force participation rates of 15-24 year olds. However, this is at least partly due to age: older youth have both higher levels of education and higher participation rates. But perhaps more significantly, education level is inversely related to the likelihood of unemployment. In 1982, 31.9% of those with 0-8 years of schooling were unemployed compared to 10.3% for those with some post-secondary education.

This result appears to have a direct policy implication for resolving unemployment, although it is not clear that if all youth had post-secondary degrees or certificates, they would suffer little unemployment. Perhaps education level is being used as a screening or certification device and in fact a higher general level of education may not lead to there being substantially more employment opportunities. Education and training affect the supply side of the labour market primarily, but they may have little effect on the demand side. Nonetheless, a more even distribution of educational achievement may spread the available opportunities among a wider range of youth. So called "disadvantaged" youth may have a greater chance, therefore, of escaping from disproportionately bearing the burden of unemployment.

Marital status - The data in Table 19 show that youth participation rates are highest among married youth, but again, as with education level, there is a strong correlation with age. So it may not be the marital status itself that stimulates a higher participation rate, but rather age. The highest participation rates are found among married men age 15-24 (over 90%), while the lowest rates are among single women aged 15-24 (around 60%). However there is much less difference for females by marital status than for men. Younger single men and women participate at lower rates than older (25 years and older) single men and women, but younger married men and women participate at higher rates than

older married men and women, especially for women. Finally, lone parents aged 15-24 have participation rates about 20 points below the rates for married women of that age group.

Industry and occupation - By volume, the largest employment sectors for young people are the services, manufacturing and trade industries which are also the top three industries for Canada on the whole. However, in terms of concentration young people are over-represented in the trade, services and agricultural sectors (Table 20). While youth have similar representation among most other industries as does the older population, their participation in the public administration, transportation, communication and utilities sectors is below that of older workers and has decreased since 1976.

By occupation, 42% of young people are employed in clerical and service occupations as opposed to only 28% of the 25-54 age group. The top occupation for the 25-54 age group is managerial which has a low representation among young workers, which is not surprising given that most management positions are only obtained after years of experience and seniority. These industrial employment patterns have tended to strengthen over the 1976-82 period (Table 21).

While occupational data are not available by sex for the 15-24 year olds, Table 22 illustrates the current situation for Canadian women. Women work primarily in lower paying, lower skill occupations, or in occupations traditionally seen as "women's work" such as nursing and elementary school teaching. While several more highly skilled and higher paying occupations are described as "expanding" for women (Table 22A), e.g. social workers, university teachers, lawyers and engineers, the number of women in these occupations does not reach the level employed as janitors, charworkers and cleaners. Nonetheless, combined with the rising participation rate trend, it suggests that women are seeking more permanent careers in the labour force and changing the career patterns of an earlier generation.

2.2 Youth Unemployment

General - Unemployment is defined by Statistics Canada in its monthly surveys as those persons 15 years and older who are not employed but are seeking employment. The unemployment rate is the number of unemployed as a percentage of the entire labour force (employed plus unemployed). One of the criticisms being increasingly voiced today of the unemployment rate, is that in high unemployment periods many potential workers are so discouraged that they have, at least for the time, given up looking. Therefore, by not seeking employment, they are not counted among the unemployed. Critics suggest this tends to under-estimate the true rate of unemployment. Nonetheless, Statistics Canada now makes estimates of the number of so-called "discouraged" and these can be called unemployed if wished. In a later section, we look at the extent of discouraged unemployed youth.

Unemployment rates for youth aged 15-19 years and 20-24 years, which have always been higher than those for the older work force, have risen dramatically since 1975. In that year, the rate for 15-19 year olds was 14.9% and for 20-24 year olds it was 9.9%. By 1982, the rates had risen to 21.9% and 16.9% respectively (Table 23). The increases were not constant over this period; there were

increases until 1978, a decline in 1979 (though not back to the 1975 level), a gradual increase to 1981 followed by a tremendous jump in 1982.

By sex, young women suffer lower rates of unemployment than do men. By age group, unemployment rates for 15-19 year olds of both sexes were 30% higher (in 1982) than the rates for 20-24 year olds, but they were 50% higher in 1975 and this differential has been steadily closing.

By province, unemployment rates for 15-19 year olds in 1982 range from a high of 36% in Newfoundland to a low of 14% in Saskatchewan. The rates are higher in the Atlantic region, Quebec and B.C., and lower in Ontario and the Prairies (Table 24).

Unemployment rates for youth aged 20-24 years follow a similar provincial pattern - higher east of Ontario and lower in Ontario and the Prairies. The rates for males aged 20-24 years ranged from 29% in Newfoundland to 10% in Saskatchewan in 1982; the rates for females aged 20-24 years are high, but about one-fifth lower than the male rates.

Because the unemployment rates of the 15-19 and 20-24 year age groups are so high, youth comprised 42% of all unemployed persons in 1982, making unemployed youth a fairly conspicuous group and leading some to define the current unemployment problem as a "youth problem". Although we will examine this contention later, it should be noted that we must differentiate between cause and consequence. Perhaps youth unemployment is the consequence of a general economic malaise, but not necessarily the cause. How this question is resolved will shape our response to the unemployment problem. If youth unemployment is a consequence rather than a cause, then youth specific labour market initiatives may not solve the general problem, but simply shift the problem to another age or population group.

Marital status - The highest rates of youth unemployment are associated with single men and divorced or widowed women. Single young men face unemployment rates almost 50% higher than married young men (Table 25), but older single men have rates twice those of older married men. For women the situation is reversed: single women of both age groups have lower unemployment rates than married women. The data seem to corroborate old beliefs: marriage is a sign of a stable and serious character for males, but evidence of a weaker long-term commitment to the labour force for females, largely associated with their historical role as the primary parent responsible for raising children.

Industry and occupation - Unemployment rates by industry (Table 26) show that the manufacturing sector has been hard hit both for workers under and over the age of 25. As noted earlier, this sector is also a major employer of youth. The "other" primary (mining, fishing, etc.), construction, and public administration sectors, also reflect high youth unemployment rates.

Youth face much higher rates of unemployment than older workers in all sectors but the differential is least conspicuous in the trade, and finance and insurance sectors. This suggests that youth are better able to hold on to their jobs in some industries than in others. The trade, finance and insurance sectors are

among the least unionized work places and it is likely that the absence of strict seniority provisions plays a role in youth being able to increase their chances of retaining employment in the face of layoffs.

By occupation (Table 27), construction, processing and material-handling are associated with high rates of youth unemployment (21-30%). These rates have also increased by 36-66 per cent since 1978. Youth have fared better in managerial occupations, but there are relatively few youth in this category. In occupations where youth are employed in great numbers, namely clerical and sales, the unemployment rates are relatively low (12-13%) and have increased by only 20-30 per cent. As in the case of the industrial pattern of unemployment noted above, perhaps the absence of strict union seniority clauses in these occupations is partly responsible for the lower unemployment rates.

Reason for unemployment - Over 60% of unemployed youth terminated their last employment because of lay-off or job loss (Table 28) and the percentage unemployed for this reason is up from nearly 50% in 1978. The proportion of unemployed citing personal responsibilities, going to school or other reasons for leaving their last job has declined over this period. The share of unemployed who have never worked was 9.3% in 1982, and this represents a slight drop since 1978.

Young men more frequently than women cite being laid off or losing their jobs as the reasons for unemployment, although lay-offs have risen rapidly for women as well. On the other hand, young women cite personal responsibilities more frequently than young men, and young women have a higher share (11.7 versus 7.7 for males) of unemployed who have never worked.

Particularly since the recent economic downturn, which commenced around 1978, the growth in unemployment among youth seems attributable to job loss and lay-off. Youth did not terminate their last jobs in increased numbers to return to school, to assume personal responsibilities, or because they desired change. The recent changes in the data do not provide a picture of youth increasingly experimenting with jobs and voluntarily accepting periods of unemployment as part of the process. Certainly some youth do this, and many of those who cite "other" reasons and returning to school (a total of 24%) are probably experimenting to some extent with the labour market. They are trying to find the right job, or a good job, and to obtain a job that more closely matches their abilities and interests.

But the recent increases in youth unemployment cannot be explained in this way, as the share of unemployed persons leaving jobs for "other" reasons or returning to school fell from 32% in 1978 to 24% in 1982. It thus appears that the recession has reduced the amount of "experimenting" and has encouraged youth, like everyone else, to hang on to whatever jobs they have.

Another interesting aspect of employment termination data is that the share of youth who are unemployed and never worked has actually decreased since1978; this is moreso for females. Apparently tough economic times do not fall disproportionately on new entrants as one might expect, although the following section shows that new entrants suffer a longer duration of unemployment. One explanation of this could be that since youth are staying in school longer, they are better prepared for job openings than youth already in the labour market who

have lesser levels of education. But it could also suggest that employers either do not attach much importance to general work experience, or they prefer young people who have never been laid-off, lost their job or are trying to change their jobs. In any event, the data show that among the unemployed, holding on to a job is at least as difficult as obtaining one.

Duration of unemployment - Duration of unemployment is the length of time a respondent in the survey has been unemployed up to that time. It does not measure, therefore, the completed duration of an unemployment spell. Duration data are, nonetheless, important since they strongly relate to the hardship of unemployment. If a given level of unemployment consists of persons suffering short spells of unemployment this would not be regarded as serious as if the given total consisted of people spending many months unemployed. The aggregate unemployment rate says nothing about duration, hence, the importance of looking at it here.

What we find is that the duration of youth unemployment has increased recently. In 1979, the average duration of unemployment at survey time was 12.6 weeks but by 1982 the length had increased to 15.4 weeks (Table 28A). Women spent a slightly longer time unemployed than men in 1979, but in 1982 this situation was reversed. Also youth who have never worked but are unemployed have the longest period of unemployment, over 19 weeks in 1982. Although not shown here, a comparison of the duration of youth unemployment with that of the total unemployed population shows that youth have a shorter average duration of unemployment by about two weeks.

However, concentrating on average duration alone can be misleading. For example, while average duration for youth was 15.4 weeks in 1982, 37% of youth had been unemployed for over 14 weeks, but 29% had been unemployed for four weeks or less. Consequently, there appears to be two rather distinct groups of youth, those who are perhaps better prepared for the labour market, who get laid-off but find new jobs within a month, and those who are badly prepared for the labour market and who really suffer the brunt of unemployment.

The data in Table 29 are more useful in this regard, because unlike the duration data, they show the results of completed spells of unemployment. These completed spell data show the amount of time spent in unemployment before re-employment. They show that among young people aged 15-19 years, 25% are re-employed within 10 weeks, which compares unfavorably with the 44-55 age group where 51% are re-employed within 10 weeks. But while 25% of the 15-19 year olds are re-employed rather quickly, 31% were not re-employed without an unemployment spell of one year or more (the corresponding percentage for the 45-55 year age group was only 11%).

These completed spell data for laid-off workers clearly demonstrate the heterogenity of youth workers. Some are able to get back rather quickly into employment, while others spend long periods in unemployment. In this sense, the average duration figure means very little. The other feature that these data undoubtedly show is the power of seniority and experience in winning back jobs. Since the data deal with lay-offs only, older workers have a much greater chance of being called back to their former jobs. Younger workers, if called at all, will wait longer periods, and in more cases will have to seek employment with a new employer. What the data do not show, however, is the greater difficulty that older workers have in finding employment if they are not called back.

This helps explain why the average duration of unemployment for all older workers (not just those who have completed a spell), is longer than for younger workers.

Data in Table 30 concentrate on periods of employment (rather than unemployment) and show that older workers, as expected, have a tighter hold on more permanent employment. Only 40% of youth aged 15-24 who were employed in 1980 had worked 52 weeks in the last year. By contrast, 63% of the total employed population had worked 52 weeks. On the other hand, 20% of youth had worked only 1-13 weeks, compared to 9% for the total employed population, although some of this undoubtedly reflects summer employment of students.

Unemployment spells - Youth who experience some unemployment suffer a similar number of spells of unemployment as do all unemployed persons (Table 31). And in 1980, 4% of youth had experienced three or more spells, and 78% had experienced one. Since a one year observation period is not really adequate for looking at spells, to better understand the cumulative effect of unemployment spells, the results of an Employment and Immigration Canada study which surveyed youth aged 15-19 over a five year period are available (Table 32). This study found that during the five year period 1975-79, over 45% of youth had three spells of unemployment or more accounting for between 56 and 110 weeks of unemployment, and 14% had spent more than 89 weeks in a state of unemployment accumulated through five or more spells averaging more than 14 weeks per spell. However, 29% had only one spell and 26% had only two spells.

Again we see two recurrent features of the youth labour market demonstrated. First, there is considerable instability in job holding evidenced by the three or more spells experienced by nearly half of the youth who experienced any unemployment. Second, we notice again two distinct youth populations: one group who experience little unemployment, and a second group who have many spells and are continually in and out of the employed ranks. Recognition of these two different groups is important for policy purposes, since it appears that part of the unemployed youth population, at least partly due to poor labour market preparation, is continually disadvantaged when it comes to both obtaining and holding employment.

Employment discouragement and expectations - As we noted much earlier, the "official" unemployment rate excludes persons who have become discouraged from finding employment due to prevailing high rates of unemployment and tight labour markets. These people are considered not in the labour force because they are no longer seeking work. However, Statistics Canada does survey the number of persons who would like employment but have given up looking for it, although they do not include these in their aggregate labour force totals.

In 1979, 8% of those aged 15-24 years wanting work, did not actively seek it during the survey week believing that none existed, and by 1982 that figure had risen to 14% (Table 33). Other reasons for wanting but not seeking work were: waiting for replies, illness, going to school, personal or family

responsibilities, and awaiting recall. If the 78,000 youth who were not seeking work because of discouragement, waiting for replies or awaiting recall were added to the labour force and unemployment totals, the rate of unemployment would have been 20.9% rather than the recorded 18.8% for 1982.

Statistics Canada also questions those who want work but are not looking, and classify them with respect to their expectations. Among young people, 43% of women and 27% of menin 1982 believed they would not be working within the next six months, and the share has grown by five percentage points since 1979 (Table 34). Most young people are seeking permanent work (91%) as opposed to temporary work (9%), and this is true for both men and women. However, 20% of the youth are seeking part-time work, and this applies almost equally to women and men in 1982. Undoubtedly, the large number of youth seeking part-time employment is influenced by the significant number of survey respondants who are going to school (14%). If students were removed from the survey there would almost certainly be a drop in the share of young people seeking only part-time, and probably also, temporary employment.

2.3 Full-time and Part-time Employment

It should be kept in mind in interpreting the data in this and other sections, that the labour force survey conducted monthly by Statistics Canada makes no distinction between full and part-time workers for purposes of calculating participation and unemployment rates. For example, a national unemployment rate of 10% could be made up entirely of full-time or part-time workers and we would tend to interpret the result in the same way for both extreme cases. In other words, unemployment and participation rates are not weighted for the number of hours sought or worked. A person seeking or performing less hours of work per week receives the same weight in labour force totals as a person seeking or performing forty five hours of work weekly. This represents a considerable shortcoming in the data and this section is presented in order to give an impression of the importance of part-time work in Canada, especially as it affects youth.

The share of all labour force particpants working part-time, including the 15-24 age group, rose between 1975 and 1982 from 11% to 14%. The increase in part-time work for the 15-24 year olds, however, was more rapid than for the entire labour force, increasing 41% from 19.5% in 1975 to 27.6% in 1982 (Table 35). Consequently, in 1982 the proportion of young workers working part-time was almost twice that of the total labour force.

Part-time work is very much associated with age and sex. Seven percent of all male workers and 25% of all female workers work part-time. Young men hold part-time jobs three and a half times more frequently than the male labour force of all ages, whereas young women work part time in only slightly greater numbers than do women workers of all ages. However, the number of young female part-time workers has increased more rapidly than for older female workers. Young people also comprise a significant proportion of all part-time workers, over 40%, while they only constitute about 23% of the labour force. Men who work part-time are more likely to be single, while female part-time workers are usually married.

Unemployment rates for young part-time workers are half those of their full-time counterparts (Table 36). This does not necessarily mean there is a better market for part-time jobs generally, because the unemployment rates for

part and full-time workers among older workers (25 years and over) are quite close. The reduced unemployment rate for young part-timers is likely explained by the fact that most young people work part-time because they are going to school (Table 37) and therefore do not actively seek out employment opportunities to the same extent that non-students do when no jobs are available. Hence, they are less likely to be recorded by the survey as unemployed.

The proportion of youth working part-time because they are attending school has declined since 1976, as has those who do not want full-time work. The proportion of youth who state they can only find part-time work has increased dramatically from 13% in 1976 to 28% in 1982. This is a telling statistic and reinforces another shortcoming of traditional labour force data. If a share of the employed population would like to work full, rather than part-time, this factor is not expressed by the data. In fact these reluctant part-time workers are "under-employed" and fall somewhere between the unemployed and employed categories. As we mentioned at the outset of this section, traditional concepts and measures of labour force activity are unable to deal satisfactorily with part-time work.

2.4 Job Conditions

As a final look at youth in the labour force, an attempt was made to examine whether youth are assigned more dangerous jobs than older workers. Unfortunately, neither the federal Department of Labour nor the Canadian Labour Congress collect data on occupational health by age. Consequently, it is difficult to examine the job conditions for young people.

An indication of the dangers of job conditions, however, can be found by examining workers' compensation claims, although this approach too is limited since Saskatchewan is the only province that cross-references its claims with age. Data in Table 38 present claims information between 1975 and 1977. They show that while the number of claims as a percentage of total labour force coverage is between 8% and 9%, young people under the age of 20 years file claims at a rate of 11% and 12%, and those aged 20-24 years have rates between 11% and 14%. Consequently, although the data are extemely limited, youth appear to be involved in more accidents than older workers.

By sex, the differences are more striking. Among men, where accidents are more frequent, the 20-24 year olds filed claims at almost twice the rate of the male labour force in general (22% versus 12%). The rate for all women was much lower at 3%, but still, the rate for young women was slightly higher (4%) than for older female workers. Data for on-the-job fatalities covering Saskatchewan, Manitoba and British Columbia show that the 20-24 year old group especially has a high incidence of fatal accidents. Although data on accidents and fatalities by age are extremely limited in time and location, it does not seem unreasonable to suggest that across the country youth are involved in more accidents. What is not so clear is the cause; whether the jobs young people perform are more dangerous, or whether young people are less experienced and, hence, more prone to accidents.

2.5 Labour Force Activities of Students

The above sections have concentrated on the labour force activities of all 15-24 year olds in general: this section concentrates on the labour force activity of students, a very important sub-group of younger youth. Fifty-five

percent of youth aged 15-19 years and only eleven percent of persons aged 20-24 years attended school full time in 1982. These percentages declined slightly between 1975 and the end of the decade, but up until 1982, at least, this trend has reversed itself (Table 39). Perhaps the return to school is a response to the high and continuing unemployment rates faced by youth.

In interpreting the data in this section it should be kept in mind that full-time school attendance fluctuates during the year, and later tables will look at the labour force behaviour during the summer months of returning and non-returning students. The data here, however, are annual averages and, therefore, underestimate the share of youth who may be attending school full time during any given month, especially during the winter months. For example, while 55% of 15-19 year olds and 11% of 20-24 year olds attended school full time on average in 1982, during February the respective shares were 68% and 15%. Since we are primarily examining trends here, the annual data are more accurate.

For both age groups a larger proportion of men attend school than do women, although there is only a slight difference between the 15-19 age groups. A slightly larger difference exists between the sexes for the 20-24 year old group, but this is narrowing.

On a provincial basis, Ontario between 1975 and 1982 exhibited a higher than national average share for its full time student population (Table 40), while the Newfoundland school population has been below the national average share. An interesting detail pertains to the sharp drop in school attendance in Alberta and to some extent Saskatchewan, during this period. This may be partly the result of the extraordinary economic opportunities prevailing in these provinces at the time. It may also partly reflect the influence of heavy in-migration, especially to Alberta, of non-student youth.

The data on labour force activity of full-time students is contained in Tables 41 and 42, and it is interesting to note how many full-time students are in the labour force, and that a considerable number are recorded as unemployed. Being in school full time does not mean that students are not also seeking work, although much of it will be part time. Older students have slightly lower participation rates than younger students, and lower unemployment rates. Of interest is the fact that participation rates between the sexes within age groups are virtually similar. On a provincial basis, participation rates are highest on the Prairies, in Ontario and British Columbia (around 40%), and are lowest in the Maritimes and Quebec (around 25%). The national average was one-third of all students participating in the labour force. The wide provincial variations are a significant aspect of student labour force activity.

As one would expect, labour force participation rates for students increase during the summer (Tables 43 and 44). The most noticeable difference in participation rates is found between the age groups and not so much between the sexes. During the summer, the participation rate for 15-19 year olds planning to return to school builds to a high of 63% in July (from 39% in May), while the rate for 20-24 year olds peaks at 78% in July (from a low of 62% in May). For non-returning students, the participation rates are higher by between 10-15 points depending on the month. It is also interesting to note that summer employment for returning students is becoming more difficult to obtain with unemployment having risen four percentage points during the period 1978-82.

Since students frequently rely on their summer income to finance their return to school, the higher unemployment rates may pose problems especially for students from lower income families.

Non-returning students are more active in their labour force participation, but some of this activity is simply reflected in higher unemployment rates. In July 1982, in both age groups, non-returning students suffered from unemployment rates 10 points higher than returning students. Undoubtedly, the higher unemployment reflects the fact that non-returning students are looking for permanent positions that match their studies and training. Returning students are more likely to accept whatever employment is available.

Table 45 presents data on the summer unemployment rates for returning students on a provincial basis. The Prairie provinces and Ontario are the only provinces with summer unemployment rates for returning students lower than the Canadian average. The labour force sample for non-returning students is too small to make reliable provincial comparisons.

3. INCOME DIMENSIONS

3.1 Income

Annually, Statistics Canada conducts a survey to estimate the incomes of Canadians, and these data now form the most reliable and comprehensive data base on Canadian incomes. The income data reported in this section are based on pre-tax incomes, but they do include almost all forms of income: earnings, government transfers, investment income, payments from pension plans and unemployment insurance schemes, and some income-in-kind. Income does exclude however, inheritances and capital gains and losses. The definition of family used in the survey is the "economic family", which is broader than the "census family". The economic family includes all people in a household who are related by blood or marriage. What are some of the survey findings?

Not surprisingly, the average income of families headed by a young person under 25 years of age is less than the average Canadian family income (Table 46), and the differential is growing. In 1971, the average income of young families was 75% of all families, by 1981 it had fallen to 70%. Moreover, the average family income of families headed by young females was only 40% of that of young male-headed families in 1981. This enormous difference is largely the result of the way Statistics Canada reports its data. In families containing both husband and wife, the husband is invariably reported as the head, regardless of number of earners in the family. Females are accorded a head of family status only when they are single parents. These families have only one income recipient and in many cases the income received is social assistance.

By region, average family incomes of young families are lowest in the Atlantic provinces (Table 47). In 1971, Ontario had the highest average youth-headed family income, followed by B.C., the Prairies and Quebec; but by 1981, average income in Ontario had fallen below the Prairies, British Columbia and Quebec. In Quebec and the Prairies one finds the smallest differential between the average income of young heads of families and the average incomes of all families. By age, the income structures in these provinces produce slightly more egalitarian results.

Unattached individuals are persons living alone, or in a household with people unrelated by blood or marriage. In general these people have smaller incomes than do families. But this is not surprising since family incomes frequently are the total of two or more incomes. Data in Table 48 show that unattached individuals received an average income of $13,535 in 1981. But males under 25 years received an income of $13,757, while young females received $9,297. Young males receive incomes slightly more than average mainly because many unattached individuals are retired persons with low incomes.

Information is also available on the income picture of all individuals receiving incomes regardless of family status. The data show that individuals under 20 years have an income level about one quarter that of the Canadian average (Table 49). Men under 20 years had incomes 21% greater than women of that age group in 1981.

But for all individuals receiving income, men received on average almost twice as large an income as women. Consequently, young women are relatively better off vis a vis males than are older women. Individual income receivers aged

20-24 years have larger incomes than those aged 15-19 years, although they have incomes only two thirds of the national average (Table 50). Men aged 20-24 years had incomes 40% greater than women of that age group in 1981. Here we see the male-female income differential already widening from that of the 15-19 year olds. But 20-24 year old women, like the 15-19 year olds, are relatively better off vis a vis their male counterparts of the same age than are older women.

The widening income differential between men and women as age rises is likely explained by the fact that there appears to be less sex discrimination among the lower paying, lower level and less permanent types of occupations filled by youth, than among the jobs occupied by older women. Additionally, the narrower differential among young women may also reflect a genuine reduction in discrimination by sex, that has not become fully retroactive for older women. Perhaps the younger women are also better educated and prepared for the labour market than older women and, hence, more competitive with men.

By region, in 1981, higher than average incomes for 15-19 year olds receiving income prevailed in Quebec, the Prairies, and B.C., while for the 20-24 year age group only the Prairies and B.C. had higher than average income levels (Tables 51 and 52). Previously, in 1971, higher than average incomes were found in Quebec, Ontario and B.C. for 15-19 year olds, and in Ontario and B.C. for the 20-24 year old group. Several variables appear to influence the income levels of the 15-24 year old group (Table 53): income rises with level of education; Canadian born men earn more than non-Canadian born men, and being married is associated with higher individual incomes.

Part-time workers aged 15-19 years earn about one third the income of full-time workers of the same age (Table 54). The gap between full-time and part-time earnings for the 20-24 age group is less than that for 15-19 year olds. Full-time workers earn slightly more than twice that of part-time workers. Between the sexes, however, 20-24 year old males earn on average 40% more than females while 15-19 males only earn 20% more.

3.2 Poverty

As part of its annual income survey, Statistics Canada also produces estimates of Canadian households with low income (households living in "straitened circumstances"). The low income "cut-offs" used are as close as Canada comes to an official poverty line. These poverty lines are developed from expenditure data in such a way that a household is defined as low-income if it spends more than 58.5% of its income on food, shelter and clothing. The resultant income line is adjusted for family size, and whether the household is located in a city, a town or on a farm.

The data from this annual income survey show that proverty among youth is worsening relative to other age groups. Among families, those headed by youth had a 16% chance of being poor in 1969, as opposed to a Canadian average of 17%. However, by 1979, young families had an 18% chance, as opposed to the national average of 10%. In 1969, young families comprised 5% of all low-income families, but by 1979, they comprised 10%; that is, they doubled their share (while their share of the family population only increased from 5.5 to 5.8% of the total). By contrast, elderly families (65 years and over) reduced their share of the low-income population from 30% to 18%. If these trends continue, young families will become a much more significant and visible age group among the poor.

There are two main reasons why the young are becoming more associated with poverty. One is their increasing unemployment and job instability. The other is that increasingly more poor families are being headed by young single parent females. At present, the chance of a female-headed single parent family being poor is almost 50%. These single parent families now make up about one-third of all families living in poverty (about one quarter of a million), and consequently family poverty is increasingly taking on the "face of a woman".

3.3 Expenditure

How do young people spend their incomes? The data in Table 55 show that young people under 25 have on average a level of expenditure that exceeds their income. Young people expend larger shares of their income on shelter (especially rent), household operation, furnishings, clothing, tobacco and alcohol, transportation and recreation. In 1978, young households had, on average, negative savings, expending about $200 more than they received. By contrast, all Canadian households saved about $1,200 in 1978.

It is to be expected that young people starting out are required to devote larger shares of their income to purchasing durables and housing-related expenses. Nonetheless, the lack of savings and security, coupled with an unstable job market makes them more vulnerable to economic dislocation, even if it is short-term.

PART II : FINDINGS, IMPLICATIONS AND LABOUR MARKET POLICY

1. GENERAL FINDINGS AND IMPLICATIONS

The statistical profile of youth points to six major findings with strong policy implications.

First, as a proportion of the population, the youth share will diminish considerably in size as the century comes to a close. This does not necessarily mean that the youth problem will "go away". One factor that could sustain youth unemployment is that industrialized countries seem to have reached permanently higher plateaus of unemployment. But if population projections bear up, we should at least not again be faced by a baby boom "bulge" such as we witnessed in the late 60's and 70's, which can exacerbate any unemployment problems.

Second, as Chart 1 shows, even though a greater percentage of youth today are employed and engaged by the labour force, there are still unprecedented numbers who want work (as Chart 2 demonstrates). Thus, unemployment seems to be the number one economic problem for youth.

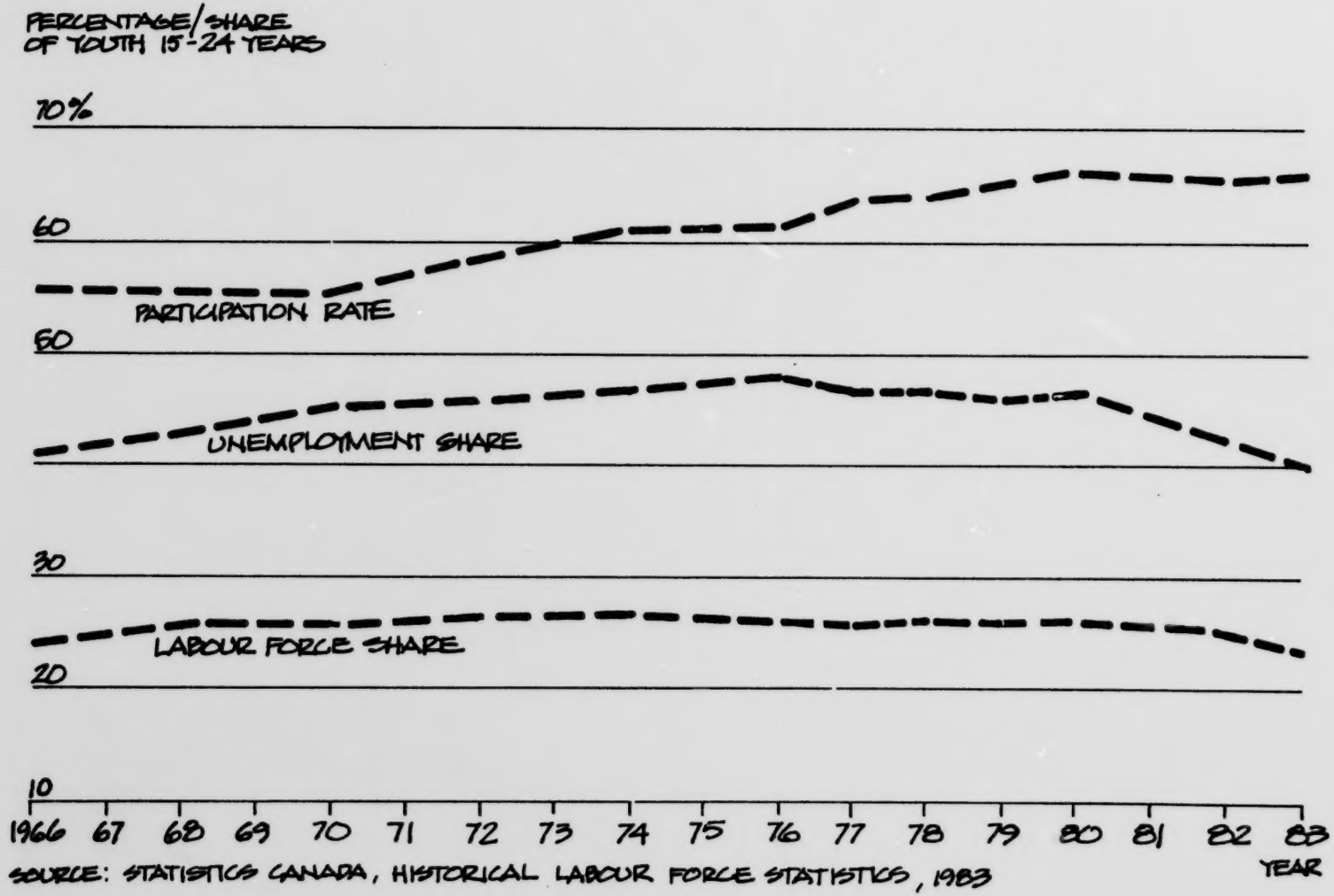
Third, women - young and old - earn considerably less than men. Consequently, for women, income differentials pose a problem quite aside from the unemployment problem. Even when women are employed they tend to make less than males.

Fourth, there is evidence from surveys of post-secondary students that, at least among highly trained youth, mismatching is a problem (See Appendix C). Many youth are not only unemployed but they are also underemployed (for example, some part-time workers want full-time employment). Consequently, there may also be a qualitative labour market problem; young people are not obtaining the types of jobs they are trained for, or expect.

Fifth, youth are not simply younger scaled-down versions of adults. And the fact that youth are different in several ways means we must formulate labour market strategies from a youth perspective. This does not imply there is something "wrong" with youth today that is causing their economic problems. As Chart 2 clearly shows, the youth unemployment problem is simply part of the growing unemployment problem dating back to 1966. There is a large youth unemployment problem today because there is a large unemployment problem among all age groups.

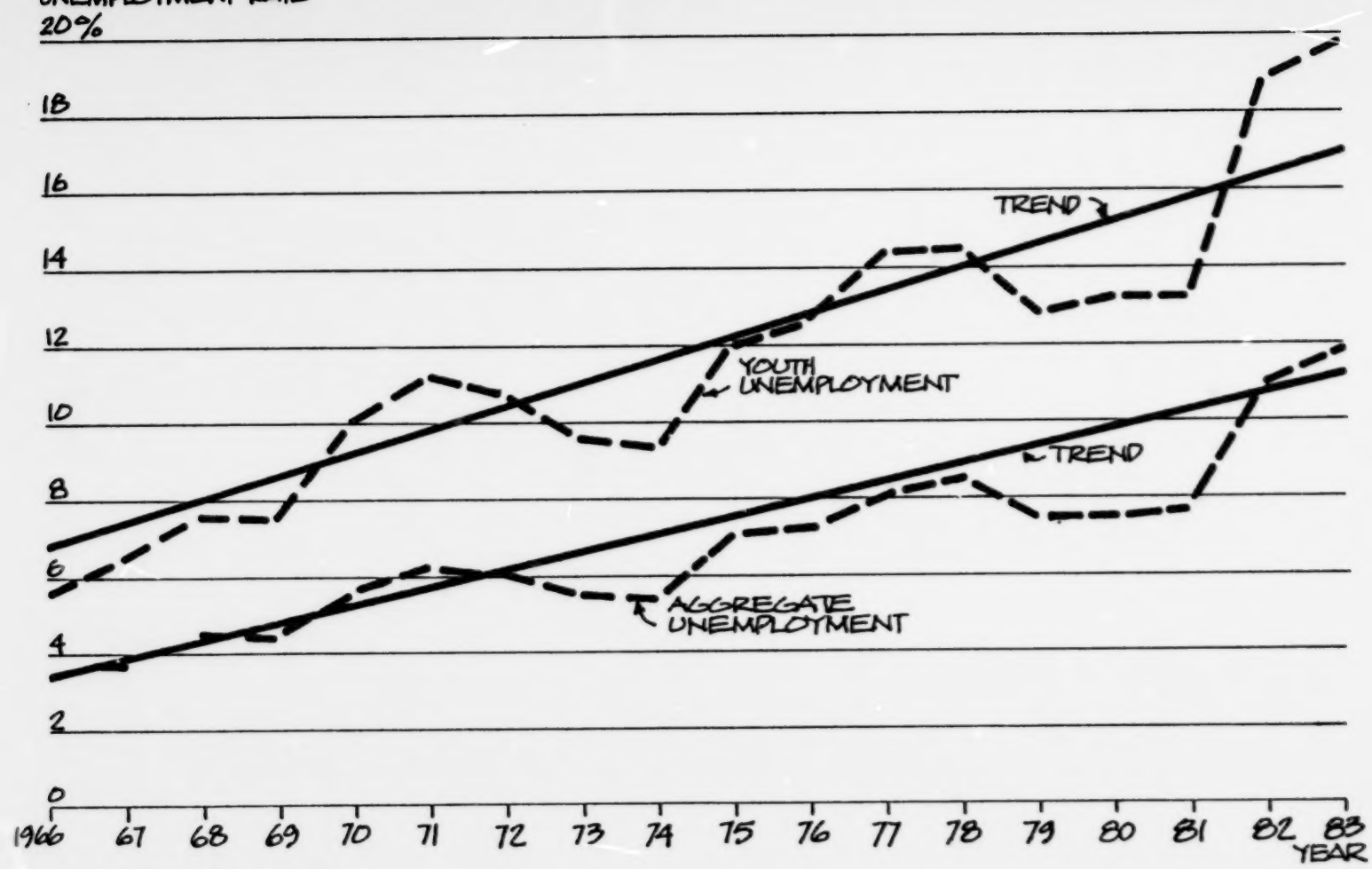
Chart 1 shows that since 1966, while the youth share of unemployment rose somewhat during the 70's, it has since gone back to its 1966 level even though the participation rate remains at a much higher level. There are a lot of youth unemployed, but there are also more youth than ever, on a percentage basis, employed. Thus, while there is certainly a youth unemployment problem, it should be viewed as a consequence rather than a cause of our economic malaise. We should not think that youth are lazy, or fussy, or overpaid, or badly trained, for if this were the case then so many of them by historical comparison, would not be employed. And attitude surveys would not show such a keeness for employment among youth.

CHART 1:
YOUTH IN THE LABOUR FORCE,
CANADA, 1966-83



SOURCE: STATISTICS CANADA, HISTORICAL LABOUR FORCE STATISTICS, 1983

CHART 2: AGGREGATE AND YOUTH UNEMPLOYMENT RATE, CANADA, 1966-83



SOURCE: SEE CHART 1

The statistical profile in Part 1 shows that youth are different from the older population in many significant ways. Youth still have greater attachments to their parental homes, and have far fewer dependents. Ninety-five percent of 15-19 year olds and 40% of 20-24 year olds still live at home with their parents. This does not necessarily mean that this is their preferred living arrangement, or that all are dependent or supported. Some will in fact be supporting dependent parents. Nonetheless, the less independent status of young people vis-a-vis the older population means that policy options could focus more on the training and career development aspects of employment opportunities than on the level of income support attached to any job. By comparison, for the vast majority of older workers who are married and must support families, the income aspect is overriding.

Another difference between youth and the older population is provided by the fact that 50-80% (depending on the month) of 15-19 year olds and about 20% of the 20-24 year olds are full-time students. What this implies for policy is that because the youth population is still very much more a student population, the formal education system can become a serious focus for policy discussion. It is more reasonable to expect that youth already in school can be more easily affected by change there, than older members of the labour force who will find it very difficult to resume or complete a formal education programme.

Another important difference is that youth are much more part-time workers (especially males). We know that not all youth working part time desire part-time work. Nonetheless for those that do, but cannot find part-time jobs, a policy focus should be the provision of part-time work, perhaps through job sharing. We know that 21% of "discouraged" unemployed youth are seeking part-time work. Therefore, not all job creation efforts should involve full-time jobs.

We also know that even among youth who are employed, a smaller proportion than older workers hold their employment for less than 52 weeks in a given year. Employment is less stable for the young. Some of this instability is due to length of work experience combined with seniority provisions. Some is due to job switching by youth who are experimenting with different jobs. With respect to this latter cause, perhaps labour market policy could focus on smoothing out job adjustments and cutting down on the length of the unemployment spell. Employment centres could have closer contact with young unemployed workers, offer expanded job and career counselling services, and provide more labour market information to the young who have fairly good employment records and prospects.

A sixth general conclusion from the statistical profile is that youth are not a homogeneous group. It would be a mistake to develop labour market strategies on the assuption that youth can all be treated alike. As the data show, there are frequently major differences between the two sub-groups of youth, the 15-19 year olds and the 20-24 year olds. For example, the unemployment rate of the 15-19 year olds is 5 percentage points higher than for the 20-24 year olds, and the labour force participation rate is about 30 percentage points lower.

The younger age group is also much more likely to be single and living with parents, hence, the income dimension of work is less important than to a youth with family responsibilities. This is partly reflected in the fact that the unemployed of the 15-19 year age group are more inclined to accept part-time

work. The unemployed among the younger group are also more likely than the 20-24 year olds to accept a job for which they are over-qualified; accept a job not in their field; and do volunteer work for experience (Appendix B summarizes youth attitudes).

The 15-19 year age group (and especially the 15-16 year olds) consists primarily of full-time students, whereas the 20-24 year olds are predominantly full-time workers. As a consequence, changes in the formal education system will have their greatest impact on this younger group. The institution of programs such as co-operative education that permit students to spend part of their school term in community and private sector work environments may act to create more interest and hence encourage more students to complete their formal education.

When we look at the youth unemployment data we also see that youth are differentiated by their education levels. Youth who have completed less than nine years of schooling are three times more likely to suffer unemployment than those with some post-secondary education.

The unemployment data also show there are two distinct youth groups. Duration of unemployment and unemployment spell data show that about thirty per cent of youth experience both short durations of unemployment and few spells. But on the other hand, about another thirty per cent experience durations of unemployment over 52 weeks and frequent spells of unemployment.

Consequently, "average" youth unemployment figures provide limited direction for labour market policy. Averages in this case hide great disparities among youth labour market experience. It seems quite clear that a priority for policy should be the approximately one-third of the unemployed youth who are more disadvantaged in both obtaining and holding work. These youth are badly educated and lack adequate preparation for the labour market.

Aid to the disadvantaged should begin with those already doing badly in school, followed up by aggressive "outreach" programs to encourage older youth who have already left school before completion, to finish or upgrade their education. There is no guarantee that upgrading the education and training credentials of youth will reduce aggregate youth unemployment. Because upgrading is a labour supply measure only, the training effects may simply lead to the upgraded workers replacing other youth. But even if this is the case, attempts should still be made to improve the opportunities of disadvantaged youth so that they can better compete for available jobs with all other candidates.

Youth are also differentiated by where they reside. Youth east of Ontario have higher rates of unemployment and lower participation rates than youth elsewhere in Canada. Consequently, if an objective of labour market policy is to even out the economic opportunities faced by all Canadian youth, and not simply to decrease aggregate youth unemployment, then greater efforts than are being extended today must be directed towards pockets of high unemployment in the eastern region.

The data in Part I show marked differences in demographic and labour market behaviour between the sexes among the young. The relationship between young women and the labour market has changed during the past two decades. Participation rates are up dramatically from 1961 and will almost certainly increase more before they perhaps level off at around the male youth rate. Females aged 15-19

years would have nine percentage points to go, and the 20-24 year olds would have fourteen percentage points to go, if participation rate parity were reached.

The changed relationship between young women and the labour force has most certainly been affected in part by a dramatic reduction in the proportion married. Since 1961, the proportion of married females aged 20-24 years has fallen eleven percentage points, so that now less than half are married by this age. Nonetheless, young women are still differentiated from young males by the fact that considerably more of them are married. Women also tend to be better educated and suffer lower rates of unemployment.

One may conclude on the face of this data that young women are increasingly forging permanent connections to the labour market in ways their mothers did not, and succeeding. Unfortunately this is only partially true. While the unemployment and participation rate data may smile upon them, the income data do not.

Women hold proportionately more part-time jobs than do men. Consequently, as the data show, women's average incomes are much lower than men's. But we have also seen that women are more heavily concentrated in a few low-paying traditional occupations - clerical, service, secretarial - and while events are changing, women are still vastly under-represented in the higher paying professions, traditionally dominated by males. And the concern with "equal pay for work of equal value" indicates that even when women perform work comparable to their male counterparts, they receive less money.

The policy implications of the income date have more relevance to income and compensation strategies than is the case for young males. But there are also important implications for education and employment policies as well. On the income side, the compensation and benefits of part-time employment should be improved, and this will disproportionately benefit young (and other) women. Equal pay for work of equal value legislation should also be pursued in all jurisdictions and done in such a way that it would be strongly enforceable and adhered to.

A major education strategy would reduce discrimination and sex stereotying in schools so that when young women are at the stage when they make occupational choices they will have the same expectations and opportunities as do young men. Beyond this it may be necessary to develop affirmative action programmes so that women are not discriminated against as they attempt to advance up the career ladder. There is little sense in developing an education system that prepares women for life-long careers in the labour force, but then thwarts the chance to advance.

If the results of a follow-up study of university and college graduates two years after graduation are reliable, then perhaps younger women today are facing fewer barriers, at least at the beginning of their careers. The results, tabulated in Appendix C, show how women and male graduates ranked such factors as underemployment, job and salary dissatisfaction and the relation of their job to their field of study. Female women graduates of universities ranked these factors more satisfactorily than men except they were slightly less satisfied than males with their salaries. Female graduates of colleges were even more satisfied than female university graduates, with the exception of a much stronger dissatisfaction with salary.

What these limited data suggest is that among highly trained women there is greater satisfaction with the employment dimension; but less satisfaction with the income dimension. Which brings us back to stressing the need for a focus on income strategies for women. Unfortunately, what the data are unable to suggest is how women would respond to the same questions, not two years after graduation, but after ten or twenty years. Would their same favourable reactions upon entering the labour force persist? Or does discrimination only begin to take hold as women attempt to advance beyond entry level positions? It would be very useful if Statistics Canada would perform a ten or twenty year longitudinal study of the same, or similar, cohort.

Finally, we must recognise that youth fall into three broad groups, each of which is a natural stage of the life-cycle. One group consists mainly of younger youth who are primarily full-time students. Their preoccupation is with school and their relationship to the labour market is at best marginal. Unemployment is not generally a serious concern. A second group consists of those in transition between school and the labour market. Those who are well prepared will suffer only short spells of unemployment as they accommodate themselves to the labour market. However, those that are not well prepared begin to experience long and frequent spells of unemployment, and low wages when they do work. For this second group as a whole, school is now behind them, and they are preoccupied with the labour market.

The third group of youth consists of those who have passed through the transitional stage. One group has passed through and succeeded, and their future career pattern is fairly well set. Neither the labour market nor school is much of a preoccupation, they are now occupied with their careers and family life. Another group has also passed through the transitional stage, but badly. Their future is also fairly well established, but characterised by unemployment, public assistance and infrequent low-paying jobs. This group has no career path to occupy them, and just as likely their family lives will be unsatisfactory due to the constant strain of their economic circumstances. The difficult goal of youth education, income and labour market strategies is to try to differentiate among these different youth groups and intercede with responses tailored to the particular needs.

2. SOME LABOUR MARKET SRATEGIES

In this section we examine two types of labour market strategies: labour supply adjustment, and expansion of employment opportunities.

2.1 Labour Supply Adjustment

Most suggestions concerning labour supply adjustment have already been made in the preceding section. These can be summarised by: education policies, such as cooperative education and less sex stereotyping; outreach services for the disadvantaged, with an emphasis on basic education; greater attention to regional disparity; more counselling and information for those experimenting with the labour market; greater opportunities for women to pursue non-traditional jobs; improved part-time working conditions and so on.

However, it should be strongly underlined that those adjustment policies if correctly pursued will not likely reduce youth or aggregate unemployment significantly, only more employment opportunities can do that. What these policies can do, however, is accomplish two ends. First, among the youth population, an emphasis on the disadvantaged will allow them to compete more evenly with other youth for jobs that are available. This would result in there being smaller differences in present unemployment rates and income differentials among youth.

The second objective that would be accomplished is that youth in general would now be better able to compete with older workers for whatever jobs are available. In some cases this would result in unemployment for older workers, but the overall effect would be to reduce the unemployment rate and income differentials between older and younger workers.

The main question posed is whether this result should be a deliberate policy objective. Policy makers should be aware that youth labour market policies operating only on the labour supply side are not likely to reduce aggregate unemployment significantly, but only to spread unemployment more evenly among age groups, and between the advantaged and disadvantaged. If aggregate unemployment is to be reduced it will require an expansion of employment opportunities.

2.2 Expansion of Employment Opportunities

Few labour market adjustments will succeed if there are inadequate employment opportunities. There can be little question from the data presented in Part I that there are not enough outlets for youth economic activity. Conventional economic analysis frequently lays the blame on low productivity, too much saving, fussy workers, an over-generous social security system, too many women and youth seeking work and so on. But the basic fact is that the traditional reliance on the private sector and mainly large corporate firms, coupled with government policy as "employer of last resort" no longer works to provide enough employment opportunities. And with the increasing reliance on computer assisted production - in factory and office - this reliance probably cannot work without the massive and obvious "feather-bedding" of redundant workers.

Consequently, in dealing with the expansion of employment opportunities, as with education, training and income issues, it is crucial to acknowledge the whole spectrum of economic activities from the most formal to the most informal

(see Appendix D). At present, youth policies concentrate primarily on the formal corporate sector, and to a much lesser extent on small and self-employed business. But more informal (or third sector) non-traditional small businesses, cooperatives, collectives, community organisations, mutual aid and voluntary activity are generally excluded from attention. Policies are not, except by coincidence, suitable for these forms of economic activity, nor are the institutions associated with these activities consulted or utilised much for youth employment experience.

In order to develop a more creative atmosphere for employment creation, young people should not all be viewed as "employees" who we must "find" jobsfor. The new emphasis must be on a process that enables youth to create many more of their own employment opportunities. Some attribute the inability of youth to create their own jobs to a lack of initiative and talent, but in fact it is more directly linked to a lack of start-up capital and a friendly, encouraging, environment. In Appendix B we see that there is strong public support for job creation programs, and 63% of the young people think there should be more advice available to young people for setting up their own businesses.

At a recent conference on employment growth and structural change sponsored by the OECD, two papers dealt exclusively with "third sector" initiatives. The paper submitted by the OECD Secretariat on local-level employment initiatives recognised that in many member countries initiatives were afoot,

> "in which communities, and individuals within, are recognising that they themselves need to be imaginative and active in creating their own employment because they cannot rely on always finding a place as employees in the traditional private or public sector of the economy".

Additionally, the brief of the Canadian Federation of Independent Business to the MacDonald Commission stresses, and in support presents an impressive statistical argument, that the future for many youth is in small business, and of all types, not just the traditional, one-person, profit-maximising firm.

The potential of community organisations and the voluntary sector has remained strong even in the face of policy indifference. New forms of small enterprise and community organisation can thrive because they do not rely on only one individual to create enough capital to begin a venture. Creative new forms of putting together start-up funds can be employed when several people or groups band together using both private and public financial resources.

Some specific steps can be taken:

- as in France, unemployment funds could be used by entitled youths to start up a small personal, co-op or community enterprise, either alone or in conjuction with others.

- employment centres could shift their emphasis from "finding" jobs to helping youth create jobs. Surveys have shown that youth require more information and assistance in the starting-up process.

- more emphasis in formal education programmes could be given to an "employer", rather than "employee" outlook so that students would be more capable of and interested in assuring for their own livelihood.

- more financial assistance, through tax breaks, or unconditional grants, could be given to community organisations and the voluntary sector.

- training programmes could be developed for community organizations and the voluntary sector in consultation with these organisations.

Finally, the whole federal government approach to direct job creation could be changed. The present approach is based on the assumption that unemployment will go away, followed by a return to the post-war economy of the 50's and 60's. Consequently, job creation funds are used in short-term ways that create unhealthy dependencies among organisations, and turn all workers into temporary employees. This process, mostly because it is based on a short-term perspective, does not consider the community economic sector of sufficient importance to consistently fund it adequately.

The community sector is treated as temporary. The "real" sector in this view is the big business sector - here it is imagined that all wealth is created. Consequently, attention is only paid to the community sector when big business fails and governments need a quick and temporary fix for rising unemployment.

However, these "temporary" programme fixes have been going on for over a dozen years. It should be apparent by now that permanent and creative aid to the community sector is needed. Programmes such as OFY (Opportunities for Youth) and LIP (Local Initiatives Programme) were wonderful funding mechanisms for drawing out the creativity and responsibility of the community and of its youth. Certainly, many improvements could have been made to these programmes: for example, local community boards rather than administrators and politicians could have selected the projects and administered the funds; also, projects that had an economic or market component could have been encouraged.

These programmes were altered and diminished not because they were unsuccessful, but on the contrary. They became so successful (or would have with programme modification), that they threatened to establish a thriving new "third sector" that combined private and community initiative with public funding. This third, or community, sector did not fit into the traditional perspective of a mixed economy. Consequently, forces were generated (in the private and public sectors) that rendered these activities "temporary" - and hence acceptable - until the real economy could pick up again and re-establish the old, more comfortable perspective of a mixed economy.

Today it is time to realise that there is more to the economy than the traditional big business and public sectors. Once we accept the perspective of the whole economy we can move ahead and provide our youth with adequate economic opportunities. To do otherwise is to wait vainly for the return of the post-war period and the old-fashioned economic policies that sustained it.

APPENDIX A

Supporting Tables

TABLE 1: Canadian population aged 15-19 and 20-24, 1961-1981

Year	15-19 years		20-24 years		Total 15-24	
	Number	% of population	Number	% of population	Number	% of population
1961	1,432,559	7.8	1,183,646	6.4	2,616,205	14.2
1971	2,114,345	9.8	1,889,405	8.7	4,003,750	18.5
1976	2,345,255	10.2	2,133,805	9.2	4,479,060	19.4
1981	2,314,885	9.5	2,343,810	9.6	4,658,695	19.1

Sources: Statistics Canada, Census of Canada, 1971 and 1981.

TABLE 2: Population projections for Canada, percentage distribution by age group, 1986-2001

Age Group	1986	1991	1996	2001
0-4	7.5	7.1	6.4	5.8
5-9	7.3	7.3	7.0	6.3
10-14	7.0	7.1	7.2	6.9
15-19	7.5	6.7	6.9	7.1
20-24	9.1	7.3	6.6	6.9
25-29	9.4	8.8	7.2	6.6
30-34	8.6	9.1	8.6	7.1
35-39	7.8	8.2	8.8	8.4
40-44	6.3	7.4	7.8	8.5
45-49	5.0	5.9	7.1	7.5
50-54	4.7	4.7	5.6	6.7
55-59	4.6	4.3	4.4	5.2
60-64	4.3	4.1	4.0	4.0
65-69	3.4	3.7	3.6	3.5
70-74	2.8	2.8	3.1	3.1
75-79	1.9	2.1	2.2	2.5
80-84	1.1	1.3	1.4	1.5
85-89	0.5	0.6	0.7	0.8
90+	0.2	0.3	0.3	0.4
TOTAL	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

Source: Statistics Canada, Population Projections for Canada, 1986-2001, (1979).

TABLE 3: Population aged 15-19 and 20-24, number and percent of population, Canada and provinces, 1971-1981

Province and year	15-19 years		20-24 year	
	Number	%	Number	%
CANADA 1971	2,114,345	9.8	1,889,405	8.7
1981	2,314,885	9.5	2,343,810	9.6
Newfoundland				
1971	59,615	11.4	44,600	8.5
1981	63,015	11.1	51,085	8.9
Prince Edward Island Island				
1971	11,555	10.3	9,250	8.2
1981	12,910	10.5	10,550	8.6
Nova Scotia				
1971	80,205	10.1	68,425	8.6
1981	85,750	10.1	78,420	9.2
New Brunswick				
1971	69,775	10.9	56,560	8.9
1981	72,125	10.3	64,545	9.2
Quebec				
1971	621,295	10.3	549,410	9.1
1981	620,075	9.6	643,700	9.9
Ontario				
1971	713,365	9.2	674,135	8.7
1981	808,870	9.3	789,690	9.1
Manitoba				
1971	96,335	9.7	85,480	8.6
1981	96,215	9.3	94,020	9.1
Saskatchewan				
1971	95,760	10.3	68,850	7.4
1981	94,945	9.8	89,050	9.1
Alberta				
1971	160,890	9.8	142,260	8.7
1981	214,430	9.5	264,330	11.8
British Columbia				
1971	201,120	9.2	185,150	8.4
1981	239,280	8.7	251,325	9.1
Yukon				
1971	1,445	7.8	1,850	10.0
1981	2,215	9.5	2,370	10.2
Northwest Territories				
1971	2,990	8.5	3,435	9.8
1981	5,060	11.0	4,720	10.3

Sources: Statistics Canada, Census of Canada, 1971 and 1981

TABLE 4: Marital status, population aged 15-19 and 20-24, Canada 1961-1981

Age and year	Never married		Married*		Divorced		Widowed	
	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%
15-19								
1961	1,361,734	95.0	70,395	4.9	80	0.0	350	0.0
1971	2,018,815	95.4	91,660	4.3	970	0.0	2,900	0.1
1976	2,226,800	94.9	116,365	4.9	780	0.0	1,235	0.1
1981	2,220,870	95.9	92,485	3.9	615	0.0	920	0.0
20-24								
1961	649,440	54.8	531,833	44.9	1,209	0.1	1,164	0.1
1971	1,049,120	55.5	829,270	43.8	7,275	0.3	3,740	0.2
1976	1,204,825	56.4	916,700	42.9	10,215	0.5	2,065	0.2
1981	1,442,375	61.5	887,340	37.9	12,310	0.5	1,775	0.1

*Includes separated

Sources: Statistics Canada, Census of Canada, 1976, 1971, 1961, 1981.

TABLE 5: Marital status by sex, population aged 15-19, 20-24, Canada, 1961-1981

Sex, age and year	Never Married		Married*		Divorced		Widowed	
	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%
Males 15-19 years								
1961	719,727	98.7	9,198	1.2	22	0.0	88	0.0
1971	1,056,715	98.3	15,950	1.4	405	0.0	1,365	0.0
1976	1,171,935	97.9	23,345	1.9	255	0.0	440	0.0
1981	1,163,365	98.4	18,115	1.5	215	0.0	320	0.0
Males 20-24 years								
1961	408,005	69.4	178,618	30.4	283	0.0	233	0.0
1971	636,930	67.6	301,400	32.0	2,110	0.2	1,340	0.1
1976	721,280	67.6	341,420	32.0	2,610	0.2	460	0.0
1981	844,550	71.9	326,060	27.7	3,255	0.3	430	0.0
Females 15-19 years								
1961	642,007	91.2	61,197	8.6	58	0.0	262	0.0
1971	962,100	92.5	75,715	7.2	565	0.0	1,540	0.1
1976	1,054,940	91.7	93,025	8.0	525	0.0	790	0.1
1981	1,057,510	93.3	74,365	6.5	400	0.0	600	0.1
Females 20-24 years								
1961	241,435	40.4	353,215	59.2	926	0.2	931	0.2
1971	412,190	43.4	527,870	55.7	5,165	0.6	2,405	0.3
1976	483,545	45.2	575,275	53.8	7,610	0.7	1,610	0.1
1981	597,830	51.1	561,285	47.9	9,055	0.7	1,355	0.1

* Includes separated

Sources: Statistics Canada, Census of Canada, 1961, 1971, 1976, 1981.

TABLE 6: Marital status of population, ages 15-19 and 20-24, Canada and provinces, 1981

Province and age	Never Married		Married		Divorced		Widowed	
	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%
15-19								
Newfld.	60,935	96.6	2,045	3.2	5	-	30	0.0
P.E.I.	12,570	97.3	340	.5	-	-	-	-
N.S.	82,650	96.3	3,055	3.5	25	0.0	25	0.0
N.B.	69,605	96.5	2,460	3.4	20	0.0	30	0.0
Que.	599,660	96.7	19,955	3.2	160	0.0	300	0.0
Ont.	779,880	96.4	28,515	3.5	170	0.0	310	0.0
Man.	91,870	95.4	4,270	4.4	30	0.0	40	0.0
Sask.	89,910	94.6	5,000	5.2	15	0.0	25	0.0
Alta.	199,540	93.0	14,725	6.8	100	0.0	65	0.0
B.C.	227,520	95.0	11,580	4.8	90	0.0	85	0.0
Yukon	2,055	92.7	160	7.2	-	-	-	-
N.W.T.	4,675	92.3	375	7.4	-	-	5	0.1
CANADA		95.9		3.9		0.0		0.0
20-24								
Newfld.	30,625	59.9	20,285	39.7	135	0.3	40	0.1
P.E.I.	6,530	61.8	3,985	37.7	30	0.3	10	0.1
N.S.	47,350	60.3	30,465	38.8	530	0.7	75	0.1
N.B.	38,065	58.9	26,075	40.3	330	0.5	70	0.1
Que.	408,595	63.4	231,880	36.0	2,815	0.4	410	0.1
Ont.	501,485	63.5	284,120	35.9	3,460	0.4	620	0.1
Man.	56,945	60.5	36,545	38.8	460	0.5	70	0.1
Sask.	48,810	54.8	39,700	44.5	455	0.5	90	0.1
Alta.	148,650	56.2	113,020	42.7	2,475	0.9	190	0.1
B.C.	151,450	60.2	98,085	39.0	1,605	0.6	195	0.1
Yukon	1,275	53.7	1,085	45.7	5	0.2	-	-
N.W.T.	2,595	54.9	2,100	44.4	15	0.3	10	0.2
CANADA		61.5		37.9		0.5		0.1

Note: In this and subsequent tables '-' means sample too small to make reliable estimate.

Source: Statistics Canada, Census of Canada, 1981.

TABLE 7: Living arrangements of youth aged 15-19 and 20-24 by sex and status in household, 1981

Living Arrangement		15-19			20-24		
		Total	Males	Females	Total	Males	Females
Total of households	N	2,264,845	1,150,180	1,114,660	2,290,660	1,137,550	1,153,110
	%	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
In a family household	N	2,172,280	1,106,465	1,065,810	1,900,065	928,505	971,560
	%	95.9	96.1	95.6	82.9	81.6	84.2
Husband/wife/lone parent	N	88,845	14,740	74,110	874,065	308,330	565,735
	%	3.9	1.2	6.6	38.1	27.1	49.0
Children	N	1,997,180	1,048,080	949,105	928,880	564,185	364,695
	%	88.2	91.1	85.1	40.5	49.5	31.6
Other	N	86,245	43,645	42,605	97,115	55,990	41,120
	%	3.8	3.7	3.8	4.2	4.9	3.5
In a non-family household	N	92,570	43,720	48,850	390,595	209,045	181,545
	%	4.0	3.8	4.3	17.0	18.3	15.7
Living with someone	N	67,125	32,700	34,430	214,945	119,800	95,145
	%	2.9	2.8	3.0	9.3	10.5	8.2
Living alone	N	25,445	11,020	14,420	175,645	89,250	86,400
	%	1.1	0.9	1.2	7.6	7.8	7.4

Source: Statistics Canada, Census of Canada, 1981.

TABLE 8: Families by number of children at home, heads aged 15-24, Canada, 1971 and 1976

Year and type of family	Families by number of children at home							
	No. of families	No child at home	1	2	3	4	5+	Average number of children
1971								
Husband/wife	294,445	152,385	102,135	33,685	5,060	820	360	0.6
Lone-parent families	28,820	115	18,325	7,215	2,065	605	500	1.5
- Female heads	24,555	90	16,220	5,870	1,650	445	280	1.5
1976								
Husbands 15-24	338,970	204,710	96,500	32,345	4,495	705	215	0.5
Wives 15-24	624,000	332,895	185,765	87,970	14,420	2,320	625	0.7
Lone-parent families	35,730		25,615	7,915	1,740	315	145	1.4
- Male heads	2,925	*	2,130	480	205	65	45	1.5
- Female heads	32,810	*	23,485	7,435	1,535	245	105	1.4

* Not applicable

Sources: Statistics Canada, Census of Canada, 1971, 1976.

TABLE 9: Lone parents aged 15-24 by province, 1971, 1976, 1981

Province	1971		1976		1981	
	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%
CANADA	29,340	100.0	36,355	100.0	48,055	100.0
Newfoundland	630	2.1	820	2.2	890	1.8
Prince Edward Island	115	0.4	170	0.5	265	0.5
Nova Scotia	1,105	3.7	1,455	4.0	1,940	4.0
New Brunswick	855	2.9	1,255	3.4	2,075	4.3
Quebec	5,275	17.9	6,615	18.1	11,005	22.9
Ontario	11,540	39.3	14,325	39.4	16,230	33.7
Manitoba	1,475	5.0	2,025	5.5	2,320	4.8
Saskatchewan	1,305	4.4	1,520	4.1	2,410	5.0
Alberta	2,940	10.0	3,625	9.9	5,310	11.0
British Columbia	3,975	13.5	4,395	12.0	5,440	11.3
Yukon	50	0.2	65	0.2	70	0.1
Northwest Territories	75	0.3	90	0.2	115	0.2

Sources: Statistics Canada, Census of Canada, 1971, 1976, 1981.

TABLE 10: Lone parents aged 15-24, by sex and province, 1981

Province		Total	Males	Females
CANADA	N	48,055	2,530	45,525
	%	100.0	5.0	95.0
Newfoundland	N	890	75	815
	%	100.0	8.5	91.5
Prince Edward Island	N	265	5	255
	%	100.0	3.8	96.2
Nova Scotia	N	1,940	105	1,830
	%	100.0	5.7	94.3
New Brunswick	N	2,075	80	1,985
	%	100.0	4.4	95.6
Quebec	N	11,005	515	10,485
	%	100.0	4.8	95.2
Ontario	N	16,230	825	15,405
	%	100.0	5.1	94.9
Manitoba	N	2,320	120	2,190
	%	100.0	5.7	94.3
Saskatchewan	N	2,410	140	2,275
	%	100.0	5.7	94.3
Alberta	N	5,310	315	4,995
	%	100.0	6.0	94.0
British Columbia	N	5,440	320	5,115
	%	100.0	5.8	94.2
Yukon	N	70	-	65
	%			92.8
Northwest Territories	N	115	15	100
	%	100.0	13.1	86.9

Source: Statistics Canada, Census of Canada, 1981.

TABLE 11: Out of school population, ages 15-19, 20-24, by level of education and sex, Canada, 1971 and 1976

Level of education		1971				1976			
		15-19		20-24		15-19		20-24	
		Number	%	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%
Total	T	579,830	100.0	1,545,055	100.0	1,180,870	100.0	1,760,265	100.0
	M	282,025	100.0	726,085	100.0	605,915	100.0	849,310	100.0
	F	297,805	100.0	818,965	100.0	574,955	100.0	910,955	100.0
Less than Grade 5	T	21,860	3.7	26,600	1.7	17,590	1.4	20,125	1.1
	M	12,385	4.3	13,800	1.9	10,290	1.6	11,035	1.2
	F	9,475	3.1	12,800	1.5	7,300	1.2	9,090	0.9
Grade 5-8	T	114,245	19.7	208,765	13.5	122,540	10.3	119,170	6.7
	M	62,395	22.1	107,680	14.8	73,060	12.0	61,295	7.2
	F	51,850	17.4	101,085	12.3	49,485	8.6	57,870	6.3
Grade 9 & 10	T	205,990	35.5	360,415	23.3	455,875	38.6	292,240	16.6
	M	106,430	37.7	180,865	24.9	243,805	40.2	154,810	18.2
	F	99,555	33.4	179,555	21.9	212,070	35.1	137,425	15.0
Grade 11-13	T	193,080	33.2	505,690	32.7	492,485	41.7	704,855	40.0
	M	82,500	29.2	221,055	30.4	235,610	38.8	328,950	38.7
	F	110,575	37.1	284,635	34.7	256,870	44.6	375,910	41.2
Post-secondary non-university	T	31,065	5.3	262,365	16.9	58,185	4.9	327,390	18.5
	M	11,725	4.1	111,525	15.3	26,775	4.4	147,010	17.3
	F	19,330	6.4	150,855	18.4	31,415	5.4	180,380	19.8
University only with degree	T	275	0.0	51,005	3.3	1205	0.1	70,950	4.0
	M	120	0.0	25,685	3.5	595	0.1	32,320	3.8
	F	160	0.1	25,315	3.0	595	0.1	38,615	4.2
Without degree	T	10,935	1.8	88,290	5.7	23,425	1.9	121,120	6.8
	M	5,465	1.9	47,160	6.4	11,540	0.9	66,370	7.8
	F	5,470	1.8	41,125	5.0	11,885	2.0	54,750	6.0
University and non-university post-secondary	T	2,385	0.0	41,920	2.7	9,575	0.8	104,415	5.9
	M	1,000	0.0	18,310	2.5	4,235	0.6	47,505	5.5
	F	1,385	0.0	23,610	2.8	5,335	0.9	56,880	6.2

Source: Statistics Canada, Census of Canada, 1971, 1976.

TABLE 12: Population aged 15-19 and 20-24 by sex: number and rate (%) of labour force activity, Canada, 1961-1981

Year and Sex	15-19			20-24		
	Total	In labour force	Participation rate %	Total	In labour force	Participation rate %
1961 Total	1,432,559	542,346	37.9	1,183,646	807,192	68.2
Males	729,035	302,005	41.4	587,139	512,082	87.2
Females	703,524	240,341	34.2	596,507	295,110	49.5
1971 Total	2,112,695	884,440	41.9	1,885,895	1,408,370	74.7
Males	1,075,000	500,910	46.6	943,035	816,010	86.5
Females	1,037,695	383,530	37.0	942,860	592,360	62.8
1976 Total	2,344,950	1,092,205	49.8	2,133,465	1,635,840	76.2
Males	1,196,030	602,405	52.6	1,065,285	913,780	85.1
Females	1,148,915	489,800	47.0	1,068,180	722,055	67.4
1981 Total	2,303,580	1,073,945	46.6	2,334,420	1,962,345	84.1
Males	1,175,105	571,570	48.6	1,166,870	1,060,505	90.9
Females	1,128,480	502,380	44.5	1,167,500	901,840	77.2

Sources: Statistics Canada, Census of Canada, 1961, 1971, 1976, 1981.

TABLE 13: Labour force participation rates (%) by age and sex, Canada and provinces, 1961-1981

Sex and province	15-19				20-24			
	1961	1971	1976	1981	1961	1971	1976	1981
Total:								
CANADA	37.9	41.9	48.0	46.6	68.2	74.7	76.1	84.1
NFLD	30.1	29.9	35.5	35.5	58.5	62.4	63.8	76.3
PEI	40.5	45.3	50.5	45.8	66.7	78.5	76.5	85.0
N.S.	35.2	35.6	41.8	39.4	66.3	71.8	72.9	81.8
N.B.	32.8	34.3	42.1	38.5	63.7	69.8	70.9	78.8
QUE	38.9	35.0	41.7	38.6	67.5	71.0	75.4	82.2
ONT.	38.9	45.3	50.5	49.1	70.3	78.0	78.0	86.0
MAN.	39.7	47.8	53.1	51.6	70.3	77.4	76.3	84.5
SASK.	35.3	46.1	55.0	48.8	68.3	75.6	76.9	82.6
ALTA.	39.4	50.1	57.0	58.1	69.0	77.3	77.1	86.3
B.C.	35.6	48.0	52.1	53.9	66.4	75.2	76.4	84.6
YUKON	35.9	43.4	56.4	45.0	72.4	74.2	75.6	84.2
N.W.T.	28.7	33.3	45.1	39.3	58.2	64.3	72.5	72.7
Males:								
CANADA	41.4	46.6	52.3	48.6	87.2	86.5	85.3	90.9
NFLD	31.1	31.6	39.5	39.3	79.0	79.0	76.9	85.9
PEI	50.4	6.2	58.8	50.2	87.9	91.8	86.0	93.0
N.S.	40.3	40.3	47.5	42.7	87.7	86.0	83.8	90.2
N.B.	37.8	39.4	45.7	40.2	83.6	84.3	82.7	87.8
QUE	39.8	37.4	45.4	40.5	84.3	80.0	83.3	88.0
ONT.	42.4	49.9	53.8	50.0	89.4	89.6	86.6	91.9
MAN.	44.8	54.5	58.7	53.8	88.7	89.0	85.7	91.5
SASK.	44.5	58.8	64.9	54.9	89.2	89.8	89.0	93.5
ALTA.	47.2	57.9	63.4	61.7	91.0	91.1	87.4	94.1
B.C.	40.6	53.5	45.3	56.0	87.5	89.0	86.7	92.5
YUKON	43.5	50.7	58.3	50.4	93.7	92.9	84.7	92.0
N.W.T.	41.4	39.7	51.3	41.3	85.0	76.9	83.2	80.3
Females:								
CANADA	34.2	37.0	43.5	44.5	49.5	62.8	67.0	77.2
NFLD	29.0	28.1	31.3	31.7	37.4	46.2	50.7	67.0
PEI	29.9	34.1	42.0	41.2	43.8	64.5	67.1	77.4
N.S.	29.8	30.7	35.7	35.9	43.3	57.1	61.7	73.5
N.B.	27.6	29.0	37.2	36.8	43.6	54.6	59.1	69.8
QUE	37.9	32.5	37.8	36.6	51.3	61.4	67.5	76.5
ONT.	35.2	40.6	47.0	48.2	51.8	66.6	69.6	80.1
MAN.	34.3	40.9	47.2	49.2	51.7	64.5	67.0	77.6
SASK.	25.7	32.9	44.7	42.5	46.6	60.8	64.2	71.7
ALTA.	31.4	41.9	50.4	54.3	47.0	63.7	66.5	78.0
B.C.	30.4	42.1	47.7	51.7	45.2	61.1	66.3	76.7
YUKON	28.5	35.7	54.6	58.0	43.6	55.9	67.1	77.7
N.W.T.	14.2	27.0	38.8	37.5	20.3	51.5	60.8	65.1

Source: Statistics Canada, Census of Canada, 1971, 1976, 1981.

TABLE 14: Labour force participation rates (%) by sex and age, Canada and provinces, 1979-1982

Sex, year and age	CAN	NFLD	PEI	NS	NB	QUE	ONT	MAN	SASK	ALTA	BC
Both sexes											
1982 15-19	52.1	33.2	48.5	44.8	42.5	41.1	57.5	59.1	58.2	61.8	58.9
20-24	78.8	66.9	76.9	76.3	70.6	75.8	81.3	82.4	80.2	82.5	78.3
1981 15-19	55.7	38.0	50.6	49.2	45.8	46.0	60.1	61.9	60.1	65.9	63.2
20-24	79.7	67.6	76.4	75.5	71.8	78.1	81.8	80.9	77.0	84.1	80.1
1980 15-19	55.2	38.5	52.4	48.3	44.7	46.7	59.1	61.4	59.9	64.8	61.5
20-24	79.6	68.2	76.0	77.4	70.8	78.4	81.3	81.5	80.5	82.3	79.9
1979 15-19	54.1	39.4	52.1	47.6	43.0	45.1	59.0	60.1	59.2	63.4	58.6
20-24	78.9	69.0	73.8	76.5	72.6	77.4	80.5	80.0	78.8	80.9	80.1
Males											
1982 15-19	53.7	35.3	-	46.1	43.0	43.4	58.0	59.0	64.0	65.5	59.8
20-24	84.3	72.6	84.7	82.1	77.4	80.7	86.1	87.4	89.4	89.4	85.1
1981 15-19	58.2	41.9	55.6	50.6	47.4	49.1	61.7	64.9	67.7	69.8	64.6
20-24	86.3	75.1	83.2	82.3	78.2	84.1	87.4	88.5	88.9	91.6	88.2
1980 15-19	58.0	42.8	55.9	52.2	46.8	50.2	61.0	64.1	67.8	67.5	63.8
20-24	86.2	76.3	86.1	86.1	78.4	84.5	86.1	88.5	91.0	91.6	88.4
1979 15-19	67.2	43.4	55.7	51.9	46.8	47.9	61.3	64.4	67.4	68.2	61.0
20-24	86.4	80.2	85.7	87.2	81.6	84.0	86.8	88.1	90.2	91.1	87.6
Females											
1982 15-19	50.4	31.0	-	43.6	42.1	38.7	57.1	59.3	52.1	58.1	57.2
20-24	73.1	60.8	68.8	70.6	63.6	70.9	76.4	77.2	70.5	75.5	71.4
1981 15-19	53.1	33.9	-	47.7	44.2	42.9	58.4	58.8	52.1	61.9	61.7
20-24	73.0	67.6	76.4	75.5	71.8	78.1	81.8	80.9	77.0	84.1	80.1
1980 15-19	52.2	34.0	-	44.4	42.5	43.1	57.2	58.7	51.6	62.1	59.1
20-24	73.0	59.7	65.9	68.7	63.0	72.3	76.5	74.5	69.5	73.0	71.5
1979 15-19	50.8	35.2	-	43.3	39.1	42.2	45.7	55.7	50.7	58.4	56.2
20-24	71.3	57.4	71.8	65.8	63.4	70.3	74.1	71.9	66.9	70.9	72.7

Source: Statistics Canada, The Labour Force, 1979-1982.

Note: The definitions used in the labour force survey differ from those used in the census, therefore, participation rate figures in Tables 13 and 14 do not correspond.

TABLE 15: Labour force participation and unemployment rates (%) of the population aged 15-24, Canada and provinces, 1975-1982

Province	Participation rates								Unemployment rates							
	1982	1981	1980	1979	1978	1977	1976	1975	1982	1981	1980	1979	1978	1977	1976	1975
CANADA	65.9	67.9	67.3	66.2	64.4	63.2	62.4	62.9	18.8	13.3	13.2	13.0	14.5	14.4	12.7	12.0
Nfld.	49.3	52.1	52.4	53.3	52.0	51.6	49.3	50.2	28.5	24.1	21.6	25.0	25.0	25.1	20.9	22.6
P.E.I.	62.2	62.8	63.4	64.3	61.8	61.1	62.3	60.8	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
N.S.	60.8	62.3	62.5	61.6	60.1	58.5	58.1	59.0	23.0	17.0	17.0	18.3	18.0	17.7	17.1	14.0
N.B.	56.7	58.7	57.4	57.3	55.9	54.2	55.1	56.3	23.3	19.2	18.3	18.2	20.3	22.0	17.1	14.9
Que.	59.3	62.5	62.6	61.0	59.8	59.1	58.5	59.3	23.2	17.5	17.2	16.4	18.4	17.9	15.5	14.0
Ont.	69.8	71.1	70.1	69.5	67.0	65.4	64.0	65.0	17.1	12.3	12.4	11.7	13.0	13.0	11.3	11.3
Man.	71.1	71.4	71.3	69.8	68.1	66.2	66.2	66.0	14.0	10.6	10.1	9.7	11.8	10.1	8.3	8.2
Sask.	69.4	68.5	69.9	68.6	66.7	65.3	65.2	63.9	11.4	8.8	8.4	7.7	9.2	8.8	7.2	5.1
Alta.	73.2	75.7	74.0	72.5	70.9	70.5	70.8	68.4	12.6	6.7	6.8	6.5	8.3	8.3	7.5	7.4
B.C.	68.9	71.8	70.6	69.0	66.9	66.2	65.2	66.1	21.6	11.5	11.8	13.2	14.4	15.1	15.2	14.3

Source: Statistics Canada, The Labour Force, selected years.

TABLE 16: Labour force participation rates (%), ages 15-16 and 17-19, by sex, 1975-1982

Year	15-16			17-19		
	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female
1982	34.6	35.0	34.2	62.4	64.7	59.9
1981	38.0	40.9	34.9	66.5	68.9	64.1
1980	36.4	38.9	33.7	67.1	70.3	63.9
1979	34.6	37.5	31.5	66.8	70.2	63.4
1978	31.5	34.2	28.6	64.7	68.2	60.8
1977	30.6	33.6	27.5	63.9	68.1	59.6
1976	30.4	33.0	27.7	63.3	66.4	60.3
1975	32.0	35.8	28.1	64.3	67.9	60.7

Source: Statistics Canada, The Labour Force, 1975-1982

TABLE 17: Labour force and non-labour force status by age and sex, Canada and provinces, 1961-1981

	Labour force				Not in labour force			
	Employed		Unemployed		Non-student		Full-time student	
	'000s	%	000's	%	'000s	%	'000s	%
15-19								
1982 T	879	40.7	246	11.3	239	11.1	796	36.8
M	445	40.5	145	13.1	102	9.2	407	37.0
F	433	40.9	101	9.5	136	12.8	389	36.6
1981 T	1,043	46.6	203	9.0	218	9.7	773	34.5
M	551	48.3	113	9.9	91	7.9	385	33.7
F	492	44.9	90	8.2	127	11.5	388	35.3
1980 T	1,062	46.2	207	9.0	235	10.2	796	34.6
M	563	48.1	116	9.9	95	8.1	397	33.9
F	499	44.2	90	7.9	140	12.4	399	35.3
1979 T	1,056	45.4	203	8.7	237	10.1	832	35.7
M	567	47.8	111	9.3	94	7.9	413	34.8
F	489	42.8	92	8.0	143	12.4	419	36.6
1978 T	986	42.2	214	9.2	253	10.8	879	37.6
M	530	44.6	120	10.1	97	8.1	439	36.9
F	456	39.7	94	8.2	156	13.6	440	38.3
20-24								
1982 T	1,531	65.5	311	13.3	309	13.2	188	8.0
M	806	68.3	189	16.0	77	6.5	109	9.2
F	725	62.6	121	10.4	232	20.0	79	6.8
1981 T	1,640	70.7	209	9.0	295	12.7	176	7.5
M	885	75.7	125	10.6	58	4.9	102	8.7
F	755	64.1	89	7.8	235	20.7	71	6.2
1980 T	1,613	70.8	202	8.8	292	12.8	172	7.5
M	874	76.4	113	9.8	57	4.9	101	8.8
F	738	64.1	89	7.8	235	20.7	71	6.2
1979 T	1,576	70.4	190	8.4	304	13.4	169	7.5
M	861	76.8	107	9.5	55	4.9	97	8.6
F	715	63.9	86	7.5	249	22.2	72	6.4
1978 T	1,507	68.5	209	9.5	306	14.0	175	8.0
M	821	74.9	119	10.8	53	4.8	102	9.3
F	685	62.2	89	8.0	253	22.9	74	6.7

Sources: Statistics Canada, The Labour Force, May 1980, 1981 and 1982.

TABLE 18: Participation and unemployment rates (%) by educational attainment of 15-24 year olds, 1975-1982

EDUCATION LEVEL	Participation rates				Unemployment rates			
	1976	1978	1980	1982	1976	1978	1980	1982
0-8 years	48.0	47.5	48.4	46.3	20.9	24.1	22.5	31.9
High school	61.3	63.7	67.3	65.8	13.6	15.4	14.1	20.0
Some Post-secondary	62.0	64.5	66.2	65.0	9.6	11.5	9.4	14.6
Post-secondary degree	80.9	80.6	81.7	80.6	8.4	9.1	8.8	12.5
University degree	80.5	80.5	81.1	82.7	7.7	8.6	7.1	10.3
TOTAL	62.4	64.4	67.3	65.9	12.7	14.5	13.2	18.8

Source: Statistics Canada, The Labour Force, selected years.

TABLE 19: Participation rates (%) by marital status, 1977-1982, ages 15-24 and 25 and over

Sex and Year	Total		Single		Married		Other	
	15-24	25+	15-24	25+	15-24	25+	15-24	25+
Both sexes								
1977	63.3	60.9	60.7	71.7	71.6	63.4	63.9	37.1
1978	64.4	62.0	61.7	72.8	72.9	64.4	69.1	38.9
1979	66.2	62.3	63.8	72.8	74.4	64.9	67.4	39.2
1980	67.3	62.9	65.0	73.9	75.4	65.4	71.3	39.7
1981	67.9	63.6	65.9	74.5	75.5	66.1	69.4	40.7
1982	65.9	63.3	63.5	73.3	75.0	66.0	69.6	40.3
Men								
1977	69.1	80.9	64.2	75.9	91.2	83.5	84.2	55.2
1978	69.7	81.0	64.8	76.8	92.5	83.3	92.0	57.3
1979	71.4	80.9	67.0	77.4	93.3	83.2	81.7	57.1
1980	72.0	80.5	67.8	78.6	93.2	82.9	87.3	56.2
1981	72.5	80.3	68.6	78.1	93.5	82.5	87.1	58.7
1982	69.5	79.3	65.4	77.2	92.3	81.4	88.2	58.5
Women								
1977	57.5	41.9	58.9	66.4	60.0	41.9	56.3	31.1
1978	58.9	44.0	57.9	67.8	61.3	44.2	60.1	32.7
1979	61.0	44.9	60.0	66.9	63.3	45.3	63.9	33.2
1980	62.6	46.2	61.6	67.9	54.1	46.9	54.9	33.9
1981	63.2	47.9	62.6	69.9	64.0	48.8	63.8	34.4
1982	62.3	48.3	61.1	68.4	54.1	49.6	64.6	34.1

Source: Statistics Canada, The Labour Force, 1977-82.

TABLE 20: Distribution of labour force by industry, ages 15-24 and 25 and over, Canada, 1976 and 1982.

Industry and age	1976		1982	
	Number	%	Number	%
All Industries				
15-24	2,703	100.0	2,913	100.0
25+	6,257	100.0	7,550	100.0
Agriculture				
15-24	119	4.4	124	4.2
25+	262	4.1	263	3.4
Other Primary				
15-24	62	2.2	69	2.3
25+	172	2.7	219	2.9
Manufacturing				
15-24	513	18.9	492	16.8
25+	1,340	21.4	1,477	19.5
Construction				
15-24	173	6.4	166	5.6
25+	486	7.7	505	6.6
Transportation, Communications Utilities				
15-24	194	7.1	166	5.6
25+	577	9.2	673	8.9
Trade				
15-24	592	21.9	668	22.9
25+	961	15.3	1,152	15.2
Finance/Insurance				
15-24	157	5.8	144	4.9
25+	306	4.8	420	5.5
Services				
15-24	733	27.1	943	32.3
25+	1,694	27.0	2,267	30.0
Public Administration				
15-24	160	5.9	141	4.8
25+	459	7.3	574	7.6

Source: Statistics Canada, The Labour Force, 1976, 1982.

TABLE 21: Distribution of labour force by occupation, ages 15-24 and 25 and over, Canada, 1976 and 1982

Occupation and age		1976		1982	
		Number	%	Number	%
All occupations	15-24	2,703	100.0	2,913	100.0
	25-54	6256	100.0	7,549	100.0
Managerial	15-24	345	12.7	341	11.7
	25-54	1,582	25.2	2,115	28.0
Clerical	15-24	661	24.4	628	21.5
	25-54	959	15.3	1,250	16.5
Sales	15-24	297	10.9	332	11.3
	25-54	637	10.1	772	9.5
Service	15-24	403	14.9	593	20.3
	25-54	659	10.5	855	11.3
Primary	15-24	175	6.4	191	6.5
	25-54	364	5.8	385	5.1
Processing	15-24	417	15.4	427	14.6
	25-54	1,044	16.6	1,151	15.2
Construction	15-24	183	6.7	155	5.3
	25-54	498	7.9	492	6.5
Transport	15-24	84	3.1	84	2.8
	25-54	288	4.6	321	4.2
Material handling	15-24	138	5.1	162	5.5
	25-54	225	3.5	258	3.4

Source: See Table 20.

TABLE 22a: Top ten occupations for women, Canada, 1981

Rank	1981
1. Secretaries and Stenographers	368,025
2. Bookkeepers and Accounting clerks	332,330
3. Sales	292,915
4. Tellers and Cashiers	229,325
5. Waitresses, Hostesses	200,710
6. Nursing	167,710
7. Elementary and Kindergarten teachers	139,620
8. General Office Clerks	115,015
9. Typists and Clerk-typists	102,970
10. Janitors, Charworkers and Cleaners	96,735

TABLE 22b: Some expanding occupations for women, Canada, 1971 and 1981

Rank	1971	1981	Increase %
1. Social workers	6,325	19,530	209
2. Systems analysts, computer programmers	3,235	17,410	438
3. University teachers	3,910	8,245	111
4. Physicians and Surgeons	2,890	6,295	140
5. Engineers	1,085	6,220	473
6. Psychologists	1,835	4,385	139
7. Lawyers and Notaries	785	5,150	556
8. Biologists and Related Scientists	715	2,185	206
9. Economists	580	2,450	322
10. Agriculturists and related scientists	260	1,070	312

Source: Statistics Canada, Census of Canada, 1971, 1981

TABLE 23: Youth unemployment rates (%), ages 15-19 and 20-24 years, Canada, 1975-1982

Year	15-19			20-24		
	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female
1982	21.9	24.6	18.9	16.9	19.0	14.3
1981	16.3	17.0	15.5	11.3	12.3	10.1
1980	16.3	17.1	15.3	11.1	11.5	10.7
1979	16.1	16.4	15.8	10.8	11.1	10.4
1978	17.9	18.5	17.2	12.2	12.7	11.5
1977	17.5	18.1	16.7	12.2	12.6	11.7
1976	15.7	16.3	15.1	10.5	11.1	9.8
1975	14.9	15.4	14.4	9.9	10.5	9.1

Source: Statistics Canada, The Labour Force, selected years.

TABLE 24: Youth unemployment rates (%) by province, 1976-1982

a) 15-19 years

Sex and Province	1976	1978	1980	1982
Both Sexes				
CANADA	15.7	17.9	16.3	21.9
Nfld.	24.3	29.6	25.4	36.0
PE.I.	-	-	-	-
N.S.	21.1	21.2	19.5	25.9
N.B.	19.9	24.7	19.9	26.2
Que.	18.7	22.8	21.3	28.3
Ont.	14.7	16.8	15.9	19.6
Man.	11.0	14.6	12.4	16.0
Sask.	9.0	10.7	10.5	14.0
Alta.	9.7	10.8	8.7	15.3
B.C.	19.0	17.0	14.8	25.0
Male				
CANADA	16.2	18.5	17.1	24.6
Nfld.	-	32.1	27.7	39.7
P.E.I.	-	-	-	-
N.S.	22.9	22.9	21.1	29.0
N.B.	21.6	26.9	21.7	29.6
Que.	20.0	23.6	21.2	31.1
Ont.	14.9	17.5	17.1	22.2
Man.	-	15.7	13.9	19.7
Sask.	-	-	-	14.5
Alta.	9.7	10.4	8.5	16.8
B.C.	19.0	17.6	16.3	29.2
Female				
CANADA	15.1	17.2	15.3	18.9
Nfld.	-	-	-	-
P.E.I.	-	-	-	-
N.S.	-	-	-	22.6
N.B.	-	-	-	-
Que.	17.1	22.0	21.4	25.0
Ont.	14.4	16.0	14.6	17.0
Man.	-	-	-	-
Sask.	-	-	-	-
Alta.	9.7	11.4	8.9	13.7
B.C.	19.0	16.3	13.1	20.4

Continued on next page.

b) 20-24 years

Sex and Province	1976	1978	1980	1982
Both Sexes				
CANADA	10.5	12.2	11.1	16.9
Nfld.	18.8	21.8	19.2	24.5
P.E.I.	-	-	-	-
N.S.	14.4	15.8	15.4	21.3
N.B.	15.2	17.6	17.2	21.5
Que.	13.5	15.8	14.7	20.6
Ont.	8.8	10.2	9.8	15.4
Man.	6.4	9.7	8.4	12.7
Sask.	-	8.0	6.9	9.5
Alta.	5.7	6.4	5.4	10.9
B.C.	12.2	12.4	9.4	18.7
Male				
CANADA	11.1	12.7	11.5	19.0
Nfld.	21.7	25.0	21.0	29.4
P.E.I.	-	-	-	-
N.S.	15.4	18.1	16.3	24.2
N.B.	15.5	17.5	18.7	24.4
Que.	15.0	17.0	15.6	22.6
Ont.	8.9	10.2	9.7	17.6
Man.	-	10.4	-	15.0
Sask.	-	-	-	10.4
Alta.	5.2	6.1	5.7	12.7
B.C.	12.3	13.0	9.3	21.2
Female				
CANADA	9.8	11.5	10.7	14.3
Nfld.	-	-	-	-
P.E.I.	-	-	-	-
N.S.	-	-	14.3	18.0
N.B.	-	17.8	-	17.9
Que.	11.6	14.3	13.6	18.4
Ont.	8.6	10.2	9.9	13.0
Man.	-	-	-	10.1
Sask.	-	-	-	-
Alta.	6.3	6.7	5.0	8.7
B.C.	12.0	11.6	9.6	15.6

Note: a "-" indicates sufficient data not available to make an estimate.

Source: Statistics Canada, The Labour Force, selected years.

TABLE 25: Unemployment rates (%) by marital status, 15-24 years of age and 25 years of age and over, 1982

Sex and age	Total	Single	Married	Other
Both sexes				
15-24	18.4	19.7	15.8	23.5
25+	8.4	11.3	7.7	11.0
Men				
15-24	21.1	22.5	15.4	-*
25+	8.1	14.1	7.0	12.5
Women				
15-24	16.1	15.9	16.0	24.4
25+	8.8	7.3	8.8	10.1

* Sample too small

Source: Statistics Canada, The Labour Force, 1982

TABLE 26: Unemployment rates (%) by industry, age groups 15-24 and 25-54 years, Canada, 1978-1982

Industry and Age		1978	1980	1982
Agriculture	15-24	9.1	10.1	14.4
	25-54	3.0	2.8	4.6
Other primary	15-24	19.6	15.5	24.9
	25-54	8.8	7.3	15.0
Manufacturing	15-24	14.8	14.3	24.0
	25-54	5.9	6.1	10.9
Construction	15-24	22.7	20.1	29.8
	25-54	13.6	12.2	18.0
Transportation/ Communication, Utilities	15-24	10.9	9.5	14.6
	25-54	4.6	4.0	6.0
Trade	15-24	11.0	10.5	14.0
	25-54	5.9	5.0	7.7
Finance/Insurance	15-24	5.5	5.3	7.2
	25-54	3.5	2.8	5.0
Services	15-24	13.3	11.6	15.9
	25-54	5.8	4.9	7.1
Public Administration	15-24	13.2	12.3	16.2
	25-54	4.4	4.3	5.2

Source: Statistics Canada, The Labour Force, selected years.

TABLE 27: Unemployment rates (%) by occupation, age groups 15-24 and 25-54 years, Canada, 1978-1982

Occupation	Age	1978	1980	1982
Managerial	15-24	8.6	7.1	9.7
	25-54	3.3	2.7	4.1
Clerical	15-24	9.3	8.6	12.2
	25-54	6.8	5.3	7.8
Sales	15-24	10.6	9.7	12.8
	25-54	4.7	3.8	6.3
Service	15-24	16.4	14.2	18.5
	25-54	7.7	7.2	10.1
Primary	15-24	14.5	14.7	19.6
	25-54	6.3	6.3	10.1
Processing	15-24	14.9	14.7	24.7
	25-54	6.2	6.6	11.7
Construction	15-24	22.2	19.3	30.3
	25-54	12.4	11.1	16.5
Transportation	15-24	12.4	11.3	19.1
	25-54	6.8	6.3	11.2
Material handling	15-24	14.6	14.1	21.5
	25-54	6.3	5.5	11.4

Source: See Table 26.

TABLE 28: Percentage distribution of unemployed by reason of leaving last job, and having never worked, age 15-24 years, Canada, 1978-1982

Sex and year		Own illness	Personal responsibility	School	Lost job or Laid-off	Other	Never Worked	Total
Both Sexes	1978	3.0	4.0	10.8	49.1	21.0	11.3	100.0
	1980	2.6	3.4	11.5	50.4	20.8	10.7	100.0
	1982	1.9	2.6	10.5	61.0	13.8	9.3	100.0
Men	1978	2.5	-	11.2	57.5	18.7	8.7	100.0
	1980	1.7	-	11.3	58.9	17.9	8.7	100.0
	1982	1.4	-	10.4	68.8	10.4	7.7	100.0
Women	1978	3.8	8.1	10.3	38.5	23.9	14.6	100.0
	1980	3.3	6.1	11.1	39.6	25.1	13.4	100.0
	1982	2.7	5.4	10.8	50.0	18.9	11.7	100.0

Source: Statistics Canada, The Labour Force, 1978,1982.

TABLE 28a: Duration of Unemployment by sex and age 15-24 years, Canada 1979-1982

Year and sex	Total	4 weeks or less	5-13 weeks	14 weeks+	Other*	Average duration (weeks)
1979						
Total	N 393	139	126	117	11	
	% 100.0	35.3	32.0	29.7	2.7	12.6
-never worked	N 48	17	15	15	-	
	% 100.0	35.4	31.2	31.2	-	14.0
-other	N 345	122	111	102	10	
	% 100.0	35.3	32.1	29.5	2.8	12.4
Males	N 218	76	71	65	6	
	% 100.0	34.8	32.5	25.6	2.7	12.5
Females	N 175	63	55	52	6	
	% 100.0	36.0	31.4	29.7	12.7	12.7
1982						
Total	N 557	163	177	207	10	
	% 100.0	29.2	31.7	37.1	1.7	15.4
-never worked	N 52	16	16	20	-	
	% 100.0	30.7	30.7	38.4	-	19.4
-other	N 505	147	161	186	10	
	% 100.0	29.1	31.8	36.8	1.9	15.0
Males	N 334	95	105	129	6	
	% 100.0	28.4	31.4	38.6	1.7	15.9
Females	N 222	68	72	78	5	
	% 100.0	30.6	32.4	35.1	2.2	14.7

N = in thousands.

* Other includes persons with a job to start in a few weeks.

Source: Statistics Canada, The Labour Force, 1979-82.

TABLE 29: Percentage distribution of laid off workers by age and number of weeks before re-employment, Canada, 1975

Age	Number of weeks before re-employment					As a share of all age groups
	1-10	11-30	31-52	52+	Total	
15-19	24.9	27.1	17.5	30.5	100.0	22.0
20-24	20.2	30.4	16.3	33.3	100.0	16.8
25-44	43.9	22.8	14.8	18.4	100.0	41.9
45-55	51.2	24.0	13.6	11.2	100.0	15.5
55+	50.0	26.7	10.0	13.3	100.0	3.7
All age groups	37.1	25.4	15.3	22.3	100.0	100.0

Source: CEIC, Youth Labour Market Experience in Canada, May 1983.

TABLE 30: Percentage distribution of employed persons by number of weeks employed, during the last year, 1980

Number of weeks employed	Both sexes		Males		Females	
	15+	15-24 Years	15+	15-24 Years	15+	15-24 Years
1-13	9.3	20.2	6.9	19.0	12.7	21.5
14-26	9.2	16.0	7.5	16.0	11.5	15.9
27-39	9.2	13.0	8.6	13.4	10.2	12.4
40-51	9.1	10.5	9.2	11.6	9.0	9.2
52	63.2	40.5	67.8	40.0	56.7	40.9
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

Source: Statistics Canada, Patterns of Full-Year and Part-Year Employment and Unemployment, 1977-1980.

TABLE 31: Percentage distribution of persons unemployed by number of spells of unemployment and age, 1980

Sex	1 spell		2 spells		3 or more spells		TOTAL	Average Number of spells	
	15+	15-24	15+	15-24	15+	15-24		15+	15-24
Both sexes	76.1	77.8	18.8	18.2	5.1	4.0	100.0	1.3	1.3
Males	71.6	74.3	22.0	20.8	6.4	4.8	100.0	1.4	1.3
Females	81.4	81.8	15.0	15.1	3.6	3.1	100.0	1.2	1.2

Source: Statistics Canada, Patterns of Full-Year and Part-Year Employment and Unemployment, 1977-80.

TABLE 32: Cumulative effects of the unemployment spells of 15-19 year olds over the five year period 1975-1979

Number of Spells	Percentage Distribution of People	Average number of weeks of unemployment	Average duration of spell (weeks)
1	29.1	19.3	19.3
2	25.6	37.4	18.7
3	18.3	56.1	18.7
4	12.6	72.9	18.2
5	7.4	89.1	17.8
6	4.4	98.4	16.4
7	2.5	110.7	14.7
Total	100.0	-	-

Source: CEIC, Youth Labour Market Experience in Canada, May 1983.

TABLE 33: Youth not in the labour force who looked for work in the past six months by reason for not looking in the reference week, 1979 and 1982

	Personal reasons or illness	At school	No longer interested or found job	Awaiting recall or reply	Believe no work is available	Other reasons	TOTAL
BOTH SEXES							
1982 '000	14	92	19	25	20	83	253
%	5.5	36.4	7.5	9.9	7.9	32.8	100.0
1979 '000	16	114	20	33	45	85	313
%	5.1	36.4	6.4	20.5	14.4	27.2	100.0
MALE							
1982 '000	-	48	9	14	10	42	126
%	-	38.1	7.1	11.1	7.9	33.3	100.0
1979 '000	5	64	9	18	26	47	169
%	3.0	37.9	5.3	10.7	15.4	27.8	100.0
FEMALE							
1982 '000	11	44	10	12	10	40	127
%	8.7	34.6	7.9	9.5	7.9	31.5	100.0
1979 '000	11	50	11	13	18	39	144
%	7.6	34.7	7.6	10.4	12.5	27.0	100.0

Source: Statistics Canada, Labour Force Annual Averages, 1984.

Notes: Totals do not always add to 100.0 due to "-" or rounding.
"Other reasons" include: planning to return to school, relocating residence and full-time students not currently available for work.

TABLE 34: Type of work sought and expectations of working persons wanting work but who did not actively seek work in the reference week, ages 15-24 years, 1979 and 1982

Sex and year	Total		Permanent		Temporary		Full-time		Part-time		Expects work within 6 months		Doesn't expect work within 6 months	
	'000s	%	'000s	%	'000s	%	'000s	%	'000s	%	'000s	%	'000s	%
Both sexes														
1982	141	100.0	129	91.3	12	8.7	110	78.3	31	21.7	93	66.1	48	33.9
1979	104	100.0	93	89.3	11	10.7	81	78.1	23	21.9	73	70.4	31	29.6
Males														
1982	77	100.0	71	92.0	6	8.0	62	80.9	15	19.1	56	73.5	20	26.5
1979	58	100.0	52	89.8	6	10.2	49	83.5	10	16.5	45	77.0	13	23.0
Females														
1982	64	100.0	58	90.5	6	9.5	48	75.3	16	24.7	37	57.2	27	42.8
1979	46	100.0	41	88.8	5	11.2	33	71.3	13	28.7	28	62.0	17	38.0

Source: Statistics Canada, The Labour Force, 1979 and 1982.

TABLE 35: Full-time and part-time work, ages 15-24 years and total labour force, 1975-1982

Sex and Year	TOTAL				FULL-TIME				PART TIME			
	15-24 Years		15+ Years		15-24 Years		15+ Years		15-24 Years		15+ Years	
	'000	%	'000	%	'000	%	'000	%	'000	%	'000	%
Both sexes												
1975	2,376	100.0	9,284	100.0	1,915	80.5	8,296	89.3	461	19.5	988	10.7
1979	2,632	100.0	10,369	100.0	2,044	77.6	9,068	87.4	587	22.4	1,301	12.6
1981	2,683	100.0	10,933	100.0	2,032	75.7	9,456	86.4	650	24.3	1,477	13.6
1982	2,410	100.0	10,574	100.0	1,746	72.4	9,052	85.6	664	27.6	1,522	14.4
Males												
1975	1,299	100.0	5,903	100.0	1,077	82.9	5,602	94.9	222	17.1	301	5.1
1979	1,428	100.0	6,347	100.0	1,163	81.4	5,982	94.2	265	18.6	365	5.8
1981	1,435	100.0	6,522	100.0	1,137	79.2	6,109	93.2	298	20.8	413	6.8
1982	1,251	100.0	6,220	100.0	951	76.0	5,789	93.0	301	24.0	431	7.0
Females												
1975	1,077	100.0	3,381	100.0	839	77.9	2,694	79.6	239	22.1	687	20.4
1979	1,204	100.0	4,021	100.0	881	73.1	3,086	76.7	323	26.9	935	23.3
1981	1,247	100.0	4,410	100.0	895	71.7	3,346	75.8	352	28.3	1,064	24.2
1982	1,158	100.0	4,354	100.0	795	68.6	3,263	74.9	363	31.4	1,091	25.1

Source: Statistics Canada, The Labour Force, 1975, 1979, 1981, 1982.

TABLE 36: Unemployment rates (%) of full-time and part-time labour force, by age and sex, Canada, annual averages 1976-1982

Status, age, sex	1976	1978	1980	1982
Full-time labour force				
Both sexes	7.5	9.2	8.5	12.7
15-24 years	14.4	16.8	15.7	23.3
25 years and over	5.3	6.7	6.1	9.6
Male	6.4	7.7	7.2	11.7
15-24 years	14.5	16.6	15.5	24.7
25 years and over	4.3	5.3	5.0	8.5
Female	9.6	11.8	10.7	14.3
15-24 years	14.1	17.1	16.0	21.6
25 years and over	7.6	9.4	8.4	11.6
Part-time labour force				
Both sexes	9.7	10.3	9.6	11.6
15-24 years	11.8	13.6	13.2	15.8
25 years and over	7.7	7.5	6.5	8.0
Male	11.4	13.4	12.4	15.8
15-24 years	11.9	14.6	13.7	17.3
25 years and over	8.4	8.9	7.3	10.2
Female	9.0	9.1	8.5	9.9
15-24 years	11.7	12.6	12.8	14.4
25 years and over	7.5	7.3	6.3	7.6

Source: Statistics Canada, The Labour Force, May 1983.

TABLE 37: Reasons for part-time employment, percentage distribution by age, Canada, 1976-1982.

Year and Sex	Personal or family responsability		Going to school		Could only find part-time		Did not want full-time		Other		Total
	15-24	25+	15-24	25+	15-24	25+	15-24	25+	15-24	25+	and 25+
Both sexes											
1976	2.6	21.5	69.5	2.1	13.4	10.7	12.6	57.8	1.6	7.7	100.0
1978	2.4	20.0	64.3	2.0	18.9	14.3	12.2	55.5	2.0	7.9	100.0
1980	2.4	20.8	65.3	2.0	20.3	15.3	10.0	54.3	1.6	7.3	100.0
1982	1.8	16.4	59.9	1.9	27.5	22.6	9.1	52.6	1.6	6.2	100.0
Males											
1976	-	-	77.9	7.5	11.4	16.4	8.3	44.3	1.7	27.8	100.0
1978	-	-	73.1	7.2	16.2	21.8	8.5	40.6	2.0	27.0	100.0
1980	-	-	73.6	8.5	18.0	22.8	6.4	40.9	1.8	25.7	100.0
1982	-	-	66.7	6.9	24.9	36.9	6.3	36.1	1.9	20.7	100.0
Females											
1976	4.5	24.6	62.5	1.0	14.8	9.8	16.4	60.1	1.5	4.3	100.0
1978	4.0	23.0	57.3	1.2	21.1	13.1	15.3	58.0	1.7	4.5	100.0
1980	4.4	23.8	58.4	1.0	22.5	14.3	13.0	56.5	1.4	4.4	100.0
1982	3.0	19.0	54.2	1.0	29.7	20.6	11.5	55.6	1.3	5.7	100.0

Source: Statistics Canada, The Labour Force, 1976, 1978, 1980, 1982.

TABLE 38: Number of workmen's compensation claims as percentage of labour force, by age and sex, Saskatchewan, 1975-1977

Sex and age	1975	1976	1977
Both sexes			
Total	7.9	8.8	8.8
Under 20 years	11.2	12.3	11.4
20-24	11.6	13.9	14.3
25-34	8.4	9.3	9.4
35-44	6.3	7.1	6.9
45-54	5.7	6.2	6.1
55-64	4.8	5.0	5.0
65+	1.6	1.6	1.7
Males			
Total	10.3	11.8	11.9
Under 20 years	16.2	17.9	16.3
20-24	17.5	20.6	21.8
25-34	11.2	12.6	12.8
35-44	8.5	9.5	9.4
45-54	6.7	7.8	7.7
55-64	5.3	5.9	5.7
65+	1.7	1.8	1.8
Females			
Total	3.1	3.3	3.2
Under 20 years	3.3	3.9	4.0
20-24	3.2	3.8	3.7
25-34	2.4	2.5	2.5
35-44	2.5	2.9	2.8
45-54	3.6	3.5	3.3
55-64	3.6	3.2	3.5
65+	-	-	-

Saskatchewan is the only province publishing complete statistics by age and sex.

Source: Statistics Canada, "Workmen's/Workers' Compensation, 1980".

TABLE 39: Full-time school attendance as percentage of population, ages 15-24 years, 1975-1982

Sex and age	15-19			20-24		
	Population	Attended in reference week	%	Population	Attended in reference week	%
	'000			'000		
BOTH SEXES						
1975	2,258	1,240	54.9	2,039	239	11.7
1979	2,327	1,227	52.7	2,239	236	10.5
1982	2,159	1,197	55.4	2,238	267	11.4
MEN						
1975	1,145	640	55.8	1,012	145	14.3
1979	1,185	621	52.4	1,120	135	12.0
1982	1,100	613	55.7	1,181	154	13.0
WOMEN						
1975	1,113	599	53.8	1,028	94	9.1
1979	1,143	606	53.0	1,119	101	9.0
1982	1,060	584	55.0	1,157	114	9.8

Source: Statistics Canada, The Labour Force, 1975, 1979, 1982.

TABLE 40: Full-time school attendance of 15-24 age group by province, annual averages, 1975, 1979 and 1982

Province		1975	1979	1982
CANADA	Population	4,297	4,567	4,498
	In School	1,479	1,463	1,464
	% in school	34.4	32.0	32.5
Nfld.	Population	112	122	123
	In school	30	31	34
	% in school	26.7	25.4	27.6
P.E.I.	Population	22	25	24
	In school	7	8	8
	% in school	31.8	32.0	33.3
N.S.	Population	154	165	161
	In School	52	54	55
	% in school	33.7	32.7	34.1
N.B.	Population	132	142	138
	In school	43	45	45
	% in school	32.5	31.6	32.6
Que.	Population	1,233	1,255	1,197
	In school	399	398	390
	% in school	32.3	31.7	32.5
Ont.	Population	1,500	1,613	1,592
	In school	573	555	563
	% in school	38.2	34.4	35.2
Man.	Population	184	187	180
	In school	59	59	59
	% in school	32.0	31.5	32.7
Sask.	Population	167	183	176
	In school	56	56	54
	% in school	33.5	30.6	30.6
Alta.	Population	354	414	434
	In school	118	115	116
	% in school	33.3	27.7	26.7
B.C.	Population	439	461	470
	In school	142	143	142
	% in school	28.2	31.0	30.2

Source: Statistics Canada, The Labour Force, 1975, 1979, 1982.

TABLE 41: Unemployment and participation rates (%) of youth, 15-19 and 20-24 years who attended school full time in reference week - annual averages, 1975, 1979, 1982

Sex and age	15-19		20-24	
	Participation Rate	Unemployment Rate	Participation Rate	Unemployment Rate
Both sexes				
1975	29.7	8.5	28.4	-
1979	32.2	10.3	28.2	5.6
1982	33.5	12.4	29.7	8.2
Males				
1975	32.1	8.7	28.9	-
1979	33.5	10.6	28.0	-
1982	33.6	13.7	29.1	9.0
Females				
1975	27.2	8.3	28.9	-
1979	30.9	10.0	28.6	-
1982	33.3	11.1	30.5	-

Source: Statistics Canada, The Labour Force, 1975, 1979, 1982.

TABLE 42: Labour force participation rates (%) for school attenders aged 15-24 by province, 1975, 1979 and 1982

Province[1]	1975	1979	1982
CANADA	29.5	31.6	32.8
Nova Scotia	25.3	27.8	27.7
New Brunswick	22.3	22.1	24.1
Quebec	17.2	19.7	21.3
Ontario	36.2	38.4	39.4
Manitoba	33.1	38.1	40.7
Saskatchewan	30.0	36.3	37.5
Alberta	39.2	40.1	39.7
British Columbia	35.4	35.7	38.3

[1] Samples are too small for Newfoundland and P.E.I.

Source: Statistics Canada, The Labour Force, 1975, 1979, 1982.

TABLE 43: Summer participation and unemployment rates (%) - returning students (*) by age and sex, 1978, 1981, 1982

Age, sex and year		MAY		JUNE		JULY		AUGUST		SEPTEMBER	
		Participation Rate	Unemployment Rate	Participation Rate	Unemployment Rate	Participation Rate	Unemployment Rate	Participation Rate	Unemployment Rate	Participation Rate	Unemployment Rate
15-19											
Both sexes	1978	35.3	13.1	42.9	15.6	60.9	16.5	55.5	10.6	30.5	12.6
	1981	42.4	12.2	54.4	16.3	65.5	13.1	61.4	9.1	37.3	12.2
	1982	39.3	15.0	48.2	19.8	63.0	20.9	55.0	15.1	33.6	14.8
Males	1978	37.5	13.5	45.8	15.9	66.9	16.5	61.1	10.5	31.8	11.5
	1981	43.4	11.4	56.6	16.1	70.3	13.4	66.5	9.6	39.1	12.7
	1982	40.0	16.0	49.3	21.3	65.6	22.3	57.0	16.5	34.2	15.5
Females	1978	33.0	12.5	39.9	15.3	54.5	16.6	49.5	10.8	29.1	13.9
	1981	41.4	13.2	52.2	16.5	60.5	12.6	56.2	8.6	35.4	11.7
	1982	38.6	13.9	47.1	18.1	60.2	19.4	52.9	13.4	33.0	14.1
20-24											
Both sexes	1978	65.0	20.3	78.4	13.6	83.3	9.6	75.1	5.7	31.5	12.5
	1981	69.8	18.9	81.1	11.4	83.3	5.3	79.1	4.7	37.3	14.4
	1982	62.2	20.2	75.0	16.3	78.4	13.0	72.6	12.4	36.9	14.2
Males	1978	68.3	18.7	80.3	10.9	85.7	9.2	78.5	5.6	33.0	11.3
	1981	70.9	20.1	82.0	13.3	83.7	6.1	79.5	5.9	36.3	16.2
	1982	63.1	20.2	76.8	17.8	80.9	13.8	73.1	10.5	35.4	14.5
Females	1978	61.0	22.5	75.9	17.4	79.9	10.3	70.1	5.9	29.3	14.6
	1981	68.4	17.3	79.9	8.5	82.7	4.1	78.4	-	38.6	12.2
	1982	61.0	20.2	72.4	14.0	74.7	11.9	72.0	14.9	38.9	13.9

* Full-time students in March and intending to return to school.

Source: Statistics Canada, The Labour Force, 1978, 1981 and 1982.

TABLE 44: Summer participation and unemployment rates (%) - non-returning students by age and sex, 1978, 1981, 1982

Age, Sex and Year		MAY		JUNE		JULY		AUGUST		SEPTEMBER	
		Participation Rate	Unemployment Rate	Participation Rate	Unemployment Rate	Participation Rate	Unemployment Rate	Participation Rate	Unemployment Rate	Participation Rate	Unemployment Rate
15-19											
Both sexes	1978	47.2	14.1	55.6	20.1	78.2	22.7	80.4	21.8	78.3	21.4
	1981	52.1	13.3	64.8	19.0	82.3	19.8	82.3	19.0	83.9	21.2
	1982	50.3	17.5	56.6	22.8	80.1	31.3	79.6	28.9	76.9	29.2
Males	1978	49.9	13.7	57.8	16.1	81.5	18.8	84.1	18.0	80.9	17.6
	1981	54.6	12.0	67.8	14.7	85.9	16.6	85.5	14.1	86.5	18.3
	1982	52.2	18.4	57.7	24.8	83.4	34.2	82.8	31.3	81.9	30.6
Females	1978	44.7	14.5	53.6	24.1	75.2	26.7	76.8	25.9	75.7	25.4
	1981	49.6	14.7	62.0	23.2	78.9	23.1	79.2	24.2	81.2	24.4
	1982	67.7	16.5	55.5	20.6	76.9	28.3	76.4	26.2	72.1	27.6
20-24											
Both sexes	1978	62.1	26.9	75.5	21.1	83.3	16.2	86.2	17.4	83.1	16.1
	1981	63.7	21.9	79.1	18.6	85.1	16.1	86.9	12.4	89.3	19.5
	1982	68.3	26.6	79.0	29.3	84.1	23.9	84.0	27.2	82.5	28.4
Males	1978	68.9	24.5	81.8	19.0	87.5	17.8	87.6	15.0	83.5	16.7
	1981	67.0	19.8	81.1	17.6	88.3	17.4	92.3	13.9	91.9	19.2
	1982	69.0	30.8	81.9	28.9	88.4	24.2	88.6	27.4	85.5	24.5
Females	1978	55.2	30.0	68.6	24.0	78.6	14.3	84.8	20.1	82.7	15.5
	1981	60.2	24.4	77.1	19.7	82.0	14.8	81.4	10.7	86.5	19.8
	1982	67.7	22.7	76.1	29.7	80.2	23.6	79.5	27.0	79.4	33.0

Source: Statistics Canada, The Labour Force, 1978, 1981, 1982.

TABLE 45: Summer unemployment rates (%), returning students* aged 15-24 Canada and provinces, 1982

Province	May	June	July	August	September
Canada	16.2	19.0	19.2	14.5	14.7
Newfoundland	-	-	34.1	-	-
Prince Edward Island	-	-	-	-	-
Nova Scotia	18.3	18.1	22.2	14.4	-
New Brunswick	24.4	20.0	20.8	14.1	-
Quebec	18.6	27.2	26.0	19.4	13.6
Ontario	14.5	18.0	16.5	13.1	14.5
Manitoba	14.3	-	13.4	8.6	13.5
Saskatchewan	-	-	14.3	-	-
Alberta	12.4	9.5	13.4	10.1	13.0
British Columbia	21.5	20.1	23.1	18.7	21.2

* Full-time students in March and intending to return to school.

Source: Statistics Canada, The Labour Force, 1982

TABLE 46: Average and median incomes ($) of families, by age of head, Canada, 1971, 1976, 1981

Indicator	All ages			Head under 25			Male head under 25			Female head under 25		
	1971	1976	1981	1971	1976	1981	1971	1976	1981	1971	1976	1981
Average income	10,368	19,000	30,444	7,819	14,019	21,452	8,248	15,201	23,870	na	na	9,513
Median income	9,347	16,954	27,838	7,675	12,977	20,925	8,028	13,945	23,068	na	na	6,709

Source: Statistics Canada, Income Distributions by Size, 1971, 1976, 1981

Note: Income figures are not adjusted for inflation.

Table 47: Average and median incomes ($) of families by age and region, 1971 and 1981

Age	Atlantic		Quebec		Ontario		Prairies		B.C.	
	1971	1981	1971	1981	1971	1981	1971	1981	1971	1981
Under 25 years										
Average income	6,060	16,345	7,390	20,608	8,626	20,426	7,442	24,022	7,669	23,899
Median income	5,772	16,217	7,189	20,245	8,604	20,849	7,358	22,492	7,601	25,189
All Ages										
Average income	7,936	24,659	9,919	28,124	11,483	32,170	9,309	31,723	11,212	32,835
Median income	7,094	22,060	8,706	25,465	10,546	29,669	8,388	28,861	10,269	30,702

Source: See Table 46.

TABLE 48: Average and median incomes ($) of unattached individuals by sex and age, Canada, 1971 and 1981

Indicator	All Ages		Under 25 years		Males under 25		Females under 25	
	1971	1981	1971	1981	1971	1981	1971	1981
Average income	4,346	13,535	3,350	11,500	3,833	13,757	2,811	9,297
Median income	3,214	10,631	3,080	10,185	3,514	12,354	2,569	8,478

Source: See Table 46.

TABLE 49: Average and median incomes ($) for individuals receiving income by sex and age (under 19 and total), Canada 1971 and 1981

Age	Both Sexes		Males		Females	
	1971	1981	1971	1981	1971	1981
Under 19 years						
Average income	1,145	3,828	1,253	4,176	1,015	3,442
Median income	673	2,263	739	2,564	575	1,944
All ages						
Average income	5,371	16,581	7,004	18,516	2,948	9,522
Median income	4,186	14,974	6,345	16,770	2,005	7,281

Source: See Table 46.

TABLE 50: Average and median incomes ($) individual income receivers by age (20-24 and total) and sex, Canada, 1971 and 1981

Age	Both Sexes		Males		Females	
	1971	1981	1971	1981	1971	1981
20-24 years						
Average income	3,893	10,700	4,481	12,432	3,168	8,851
Median income	3,670	9,635	4,268	11,334	3,131	8,153
All ages						
Average income	5,371	16,581	7,004	18,516	2,948	9,522
Median income	4,186	14,974	6,345	16,770	2,005	7,281

Source: See Table 46.

TABLE 51: Average and median incomes ($) of individuals receiving income 19 years and under by region, 1971 and 1981

Indicator	Atlantic		Quebec		Ontario		Prairies		B.C.	
	1971	1981	1971	1981	1971	1981	1971	1981	1971	1981
Average income	937	2,895	1,241	3,948	1,161	3,216	1,078	4,964	1,180	4,391
Median income	537	1,811	761	2,335	687	1,980	629	2,786	631	2,748

Source: See Table 46.

TABLE 52: Average and median incomes($) of individuals receiving income by age and region 1971 and 1981

Age	Atlantic		Quebec		Ontario		Prairies		B.C.	
	1971	1981	1971	1981	1971	1981	1971	1981	1971	1981
20-24 years										
Average	2,901	8,651	3,664	9,812	4,292	10,158	3,796	12,735	4,174	12,625
Median	2,464	7,648	3,571	9,115	4,054	9,069	3,654	11,999	3,830	11,236
All Ages										
Average	4,007	13,903	5,284	16,449	5,821	16,576	4,877	16,747	5,846	18,369
Median	2,918	12,385	4,248	14,905	4,764	15,186	3,557	14,912	4,434	16,953

Source: See Table 46.

TABLE 53: Average income ($) of individuals receiving income, ages 15-24, by selected characteristics, Canada 1971 and 1981

Selected Characteristics	1971	1981
By Education		
0-8 years	2,565	6,520
Secondary and some post-secondary	2,861	8,333
University degree	2,906	11,087
By Immigration		
Canadian-born men	na	9,074
Non-Canadian-born men	na	8,274
By Marital Status		
Married men	5,878	16,053
Single, divorced, widowed men	2,306	7,530
Married women	3,180	8,719
Single, divorced, widowed women	1,825	5,872

Source: Statistics Canada, Income Distributions by Size, 1971 and 1981.

TABLE 54: Average incomes ($) of earners with earnings, by age, sex and employment status, 1981

Sex and Employment Status	20-24 years	15-19 years
All earners	10,349	3,641
Full-time earners	14,519	9,846
Part-time earners	6,581	2,951
Male earners	11,954	3,962
Full-time	16,463	10,419
Part-time	7,901	3,173
Female earners	8,569	3,278
Full-time	12,376	9,062
Part-time	5,110	2,707

Source: See Table 53.

TABLE 55: Family expenditures 1978

	All families and unattached individuals		Head under 25 years Families and unattached individuals		Head under 25 years Family of size 2	
Income before taxes	19,582.6		14,405.2		16,464.5	
Other money receipts	664.8		705.9		781.1	
Net change in assets & (liabilities)*	1,221.2		(208.8)*		(185.4)*	
Percentage:						
Homeowners	63.3		18.4		25.6	
Car or truck owners	78.2		69.7		80.5	
With head Canadian-born	77.0		92.2		92.6	
With spouse employed full-time	14.9		15.9		23.8	
Expenditures	Distribution of Expenditures					
	$	%	$	%	$	%
Food	3,188.5	16.8	2,335.5	15.1	2,680.9	15.3
Shelter:	3,060.7	16.1	2,593.6	16.8	2,901.6	16.6
rent	834.7	4.4	1,713.9	11.1	1,717.3	9.8
own	1,436.5	7.5	515.4	3.3	738.0	4.2
other	162.0	.9	73.9	.5	81.9	.5
water, fuel, electricity	627.4	3.3	290.4	1.9	364.4	2.1
Household operation	782.0	4.1	693.8	4.5	811.8	4.6
Household Furn. & equip:	868.4	4.6	761.5	4.9	935.1	5.4
Furniture	279.9	1.5	279.5	1.8	335.2	1.9
Household appliances	183.3	1.0	187.5	1.2	256.5	1.5
Other	405.1	2.1	294.5	1.9	343.4	2.0
Clothing	1,298.7	6.8	1,058.7	6.9	1,211.2	6.9
Personal Care	312.6	1.6	243.1	1.6	271.9	1.6
Medical & health care	368.1	1.9	256.4	1.7	292.8	1.7
Tobacco and Alcohol	613.6	3.2	684.6	4.4	720.8	4.1
Transportation:	2,425.6	12.7	2,251.8	14.6	2,632.6	15.1
Auto & truck,	2,171.9	11.4	2,035.7	13.2	2,434.8	13.9
purchase	1,017.6	5.3	937.6	6.1	1,128.6	6.5
operation	1,154.4	6.1	1,098.1	7.1	1,306.2	7.5
Other transport	253.7	1.3	216.1	1.4	197.8	1.1
Recreation	947.7	5.0	919.1	5.9	932.8	5.3
Reading	108.1	.6	96.5	.6	103.1	.6
Education	121.3	.6	116.6	.8	120.9	.7
Miscellaneous	461.9	2.4	417.4	2.7	496.5	2.8
Total current consumption	14,557.2	76.5	12,428.7	80.5	14,111.9	80.8
Personal taxes	3,212.2	16.9	2,198.6	14.2	2,436.5	13.9
Security	794.4	4.2	550.4	3.6	629.9	3.6
Gifts & Contributions	469.9	2.5	270.8	1.8	20.4	1.7
Total Expenditures	19,033.7	100.0	15,448.5	100.0	17,468.8	100.0

* Parenthesis refers to liabilities.

Source: Statistics Canada, Family Expenditures, 1978.

APPENDIX B

Youth Attitudes and Expectations

YOUTH ATTITUDES AND EXPECTATIONS

This section deals with the attitudes and expectations of young people regarding their own future and that of the country. The material has been collected from four sources: (i) in 1982, Goldfarb Consultants held discussions with young people including employed and unemployed youth and students in five cities; (ii) the Canada Employment and Immigration Commission (CEIC) 1977 survey of 2800 youths, none of whom were students; (iii) a Gallup Survey of 1982 which included a sample of 322 youth 18-24 years of age; (iv) a survey by Goldfarb Consultants in 1983 including a sample of 1200 youth ages 15-24.

A) Attitudes Towards Work

- Young people want to work in order to support themselves and others (45%) or to earn money (26%) (CEIC). Most young people surveyed in the CEIC study planned to stay at their present job, citing reasons of liking work, good conditions and opportunity for advancement. The 28% who were planning to leave cited reasons of returning to school or training; dead end job; and better jobs available. Forty-four percent felt they had "fairly good" chances of getting their preferred job within one year, although one quarter felt their chances were not good.

- Gallup asked respondants to measure the degree of job satisfaction on a scale of 1 to 10, with 10 being very satisfied. Sixty percent of the respondants gave a rating of 8 or higher, indicating a high degree of job satisfaction. This is comparable to the CEIC finding of 61% planning to remain at their jobs. And the Goldfarb survey found that 62% of its respondants felt they had about the right level of qualification for their job. Yet Goldfarb also discovered that one in three youth felt over-qualified, indicating some underemployment. These youth were slightly more likely to be employed part time, male, and between 20 and 24 years of age.

- Gallup youth respondants were asked to rate different aspects of a job by order of importance and the results are contained in the following table. (For comparison, the rank order is also provided for respondants 25 years of age and over.)

TABLE B1: Ranking of the importance of job aspects by age

Aspect	18-24 years	25 and over
Pleasant people	1	1
Interesting	2	2
Achievement	3	4
Good pay	4	3
Security	5	5
Meets one's abilities	6	6
Meeting people	7	10
Uses initiative	8	7
Chance of promotion	9	9
Responsible job	10	8
Good hours	11	11
A respected job	12	13
A job useful to society	13	12
Little pressure	14	15
Generous holidays	15	14

- Young people in the Gallup survey were also asked whether they looked forward to or regretted returning to work after a weekend. One third regretted returning, while one-third looked forward to returning. An additional one third volunteered that they enjoyed both the weekend and work. Older workers were more likely (45%) to look forward to returning to work. Only 20% regretted that the weekend was over.

- Over 50% of the Gallup youth felt pride in their work, although 72% of those 25 years of age and over felt this way. Those taking little or no pride constituted 9% of the respondants.

- One half of the youth surveyed by Gallup stated they never felt exploited in their work, while older workers felt slightly more exploited.

- Youth are less likely then older persons to feel they have freedom to make decisions at their jobs. On a scale of 1 to 10, with 10 being a "great deal" of freedom to make decisions, almost 40% of young respondants recorded a level of satisfaction between 1 and 7, while 40% of older respondants recorded satisfaction levels between 8 and 10.

- Should a three-day work week become the norm, youth felt they would spend the time with families and friends, studying or improving themselves, or with hobbies. They were least likely to choose voluntary work, or to work at a small business.

- The Goldfarb survey found that over 77% of young people intend to work for most of their lives. However, they were less likely to feel this way if they lived in British Columbia or on the Prairies. Also, full-time workers were slightly less likely to feel this way than were part-time workers, the unemployed or students.

B) Attitudes of the Unemployed

- The CEIC survey found that lack of money (54%) was the worst aspect of unemployment, followed by boredom (26%) and depression, shame, loss of independence and prestige (7%). The only positive aspect listed was the free time gained (43%).

- Youth gave the figure of $100 per week as representing their minimum financial needs (compared to the average of provincial minimum wages which was $114 per week at survey time.) When the unemployed were asked to state their means of support, unemployment benefits were mentioned by 43%, support from family and friends by 42%, savings by 30% and 4% mentioned welfare benefits. Unemployment insurance recipients were, however, mainly in the 20-24 age group, since younger persons often did not qualify for UI.

- Goldfarb found that 28% of its young unemployed were not very optimistic about finding acceptable jobs within the next six months and 36% were either somewhat or very pessimistic. Women were more likely to be pessimistic than men, and youth 20-24 more likely to be pessimistic than youth 15-19 years old.

- The predominant reason youth gave for their unemployment was that the labour market wasn't good (59%). Younger youth were more likely to cite no experience, or employers not interested in young people, while older youth 20-24 more often cited not enough education as a reason.

- The following Table summarises the answers of Goldfarb's respondants when they were asked what they would be willing to do to improve their chances of getting a job. The most frequent answers were to get specific training, accept part time work, accept a job not in your field, and accept a job for which you are over-qualified. Young people in British Columbia and the Maritimes were more willing to try different things to get work than youth in other regions, and men were more willing than women. However, women were more willing to accept part time work, do volunteer work, or learn a second language. Young people 15-19 were more willing to try different things except for returning to school, than were 20-24 year olds. No group was particularly enthused about military service.

- In summary to this table, it should be pointed out that over 80% of all youth are willing to get specific training, accept part-time work or jobs not in their field or for which they are over qualified. These results demonstrate how badly they want paid work, and the extent to which they are willing to compromise to obtain it. Also of interest is that Quebecois youth are as willing as others to migrate to another province, despite the greater cultural shift involved, and that many more are willing to learn Canada's other official language.

TABLE B2: What unemployed youth would consider doing to get a job, sex, age and region, 1983: Percentages who said "yes" and (rank).

	Total	B.C.	Pr.	Ont	Que	Mar.	M	F	15-19	20-24
1. Get specific training at school (%)	87.4 (1)	100.0 (1)	82.6 (2)	88.8 (1)	81.8 (3)	83.3 (2)	39.1 (1)	83.0 (3)	86.0 (4)	88.0 (1)
2. Accept a part-time job	86.6 (2)	85.7 (3)	78.2 (3)	84.4 (3)	90.9 (1)	100.0 (1)	86.4 (3)	86.7 (1)	95.3 (2)	80.9 (3)
3. Accept a job not in your field	85.8 (3)	85.7 (3)	78.2 (3)	86.6 (2)	90.9 (1)	83.3 (2)	85.1 (4)	86.7 (1)	97.6 (1)	79.7 (4)
4. Accept a job for which you are over-qualified	85.0 (4)	92.8 (2)	95.6 (1)	82.2 (4)	81.8 (3)	83.3 (2)	89.1 (1)	79.2 (4)	88.3 (3)	83.3 (2)
5. Do volunteer work for experience	63.7 (5)	50.0 (5)	73.9 (5)	57.7 (5)	60.6 (6)	75.0 (5)	52.7 (6)	77.3 (5)	67.4 (5)	61.9 (5)
6. Move to another province	50.3 (6)	35.7 (7)	52.1 (6)	51.1 (6)	48.4 (7)	58.3 (6)	63.5 (5)	32.0 (7)	53.4 (6)	48.8 (6)
7. Learn other official language	45.6 (7)	50.0 (5)	30.4 (7)	28.8 (7)	72.7 (5)	58.3 (6)	43.2 (7)	49.0 (6)	53.4 (6)	41.6 (7)
8. Join Canadian Armed Forces	20.4 (8)	28.5 (8)	8.6 (8)	26.6 (8)	15.1 (8)	25.0 (8)	27.0 (8)	13.2 (8)	32.5 (8)	15.4 (8)

Source: Goldfarb, 1983.

C) Attitudes Towards Education

- When Goldfarb questioned respondants on how useful their education was or would be in getting them a job, 37% felt it was very useful, 29% somewhat useful, 17% a little useful, and 16% not at all useful. There were differences regionally, with youth from the Prairies and the Maritimes regarding their education as very useful to a greater extent than youth in the other regions. Youth from British Columbia and Ontario were more likely to find their education not useful at all.

- Unemployed youth were the least likely to see value in their education: 32% felt it would be of no use and 27% felt it would have little use in getting them a job.

- Males were generally more pessimistic about the value of their education than were females. And youth aged 15-19 were far more optimistic than youth 20-24 years of age.

- Students were split on whether they would quit their studies if offered the kind of job they wanted at the end of the term. They were emphatic that they would not quit for a job other than one they wanted.

- Students who returned to school after a period of unemployment or employment were fairly realistic about their chances of obtaining a job. 48% felt they would have some difficulty and 23% felt they would have no difficulty. This can be compared to the earlier figure of 53% of all students who felt their education would be very useful and 32% feeling it would be somewhat useful in getting them a job. The returned students felt their main problem in getting a job would be the lack of jobs in the market. Most felt they would have to settle for something less than they wanted for a few years, but they would eventually get the job they wanted.

D) Some General Attitudes of Canadian Youth

Both the Goldfarb and Gallup surveys asked respondants a series of general questions aimed at obtaining a picture of their attitudes towards Canadian society, its practices and institutions, and government. Only the responses concerning economic questions are reported here.

1. Work-place practices

- When asked which model of management they favoured, youth were less likely to favour owner-run businesses, than were older people (47% to 58% respectively), and more likely to favour employee participation (38% to 28%), or employees owning the business (9% to 7%). An insignificant share of youth and older workers were in favour of state ownership.

- Respondants were asked whether supervisor's instructions should always be followed even if workers disagree with the instructions. Forty-nine percent of young people felt instructions should be followed compared to 55% of older persons. Youth were more likely to favour having to be convinced that the instructions should be followed than were older workers.

- When asked if it "was fair" that one secretary earned $20 per week more than another based on the boss' evaluation of greater efficiency and reliability, 68% of youth felt this was fair compared to 73% of older people.

- In response to a question of whether unions have the right to strike even when such strikes are illegal, 18% of youth agreed compared to 11% of people 25 years and over. Threatening workers who refused to join a strike was justifiable in the eyes of 9% of youth and 8% of older persons, and never justifiable to 55% of youth and 75% of older persons.

2. Respect for institutions and practices

- Fourteen percent of young people have very high respect for small business, 28% for the post-secondary school system, 21% for the secondary school system, 14% for large corporations and 11% for unions. There is "moderately high" respect (over 50%) for small business, large corporations and both school systems. Forty-five percent have moderate or "very low" respect for unions, and 32% moderate or "very low" respect for large corporations.

- Gallup asked a similar type of question concerning the confidence held in unions, the education system, and major companies, with the following results:

TABLE B3: Degree of confidence in some institutions

		Degree of Confidence			
		Great deal %	A lot %	Not very much %	None %
Major companies	18-24	9.5	47.2	32.8	10.5
	25+	11.0	45.3	35.8	7.9
Education system	18-24	14.9	51.6	29.1	4.4
	25+	16.2	50.2	29.4	4.2
Trade Unions	18-24	4.9	36.7	47.5	10.8
	25+	4.9	25.9	51.9	17.3

- The attitudes of youth do not differ dramatically from adults when examining the confidence they have in certain institutions. Youth were less likely to show "a great deal of confidence" but generally gave similar support. The only exception is unions, where youth were more likely to show confidence.

- Evaluating actions as to whether they are justified or not was asked of Gallup respondants. Asked if cheating on tax was justified, 54% of youth and 68% of older persons said never; 4% of youth and 1% of older persons said it was always justified.

- Claiming government benefits to which there was not entitlement was never justified in the minds of 39% of young and 67% of older persons. It was always justified for 3% of youth and 1% of older persons.

3. National Issues

- In the Goldfarb survey, unemployment was considered a "very important" issue facing Canada by 80% of youth and "somewhat important" by 16%. Needless to say, 98% of unemployed youth felt it was "important". It was not as important to youth in Quebec, among full-time workers, those not in the labour force, and among males and those 15-19 years of age.

- 71% felt inflation was "very important", particularly in B.C., Ontario and the Maritimes, and for workers, the unemployed, and women.

- Gallup gave respondants a list of possible changes in our way of life and asked respondants to rate them as "good", "bad" or "don't mind". Both 18-24 year olds and those 25 years and older responded that a greater respect for authority was a good thing: 66% of the younger group and 79% of the older group felt this way. Less emphasis on money and material possessions was deemed good by 63% of youth and 66% of older persons. Almost 40% of older persons favoured more emphasis on the free enterprise system compared to 57% of younger persons. Sixty percent of older personscompared to 57% of younger persons felt the development of technology was good.

- While both groups felt that diminishing the importance of paid work was bad, only 54% of younger persons expressed this view, compared to 62% of older persons. And 71% of young people felt less government involvement with the poor was bad, while 66% of older persons felt this way.

- When Goldfarb asked how the federal government was doing on the issues of controlling inflation, advancing equality for women or fighting unemployment, fewer than 2% gave an excellent rating. Advancing the cause of women was given a "good" rating by 28% and a "fair" rating by 52%, and it had the least "poor" ratings of the three issues (17%). Men were more likely to rate this issue as "excellent", "good", or "poor" than were women, who mainly felt a "fair" job was being done (55%). Those on the Prairies and in Quebec, students, and youth 15-19 years of age were more likely to give a good or excellent rating to federal government actions.

- The government control of inflation was deemed "excellent" by 2%, "good" by 19% and "fair" by 44%, while over 34% gave governement a poor rating. Reducing the level of unemployment was rated : 0.6% excellent; 16% good, 45% fair and 37% poor.

- The importance of government policies to reduce unemployment were rated by all Goldfarb respondants with the following results.

TABLE B4: Opinion on some government policies related to unemployment

	Very important	Somewhat important	Not very important	Not important at all
1. Job creation programs	88%	15%	2%	0%
2. Job training programs for youth	78%	19%	2%	0%
3. Advice to young people to set up their own business	63%	30%	6%	1%
4. Information on exchange programs, scholarships, etc.	60%	32%	7%	1%

- Among unemployed respondants, 86% felt job creation and job training were very important and 71% thought more small business was required.

- Job creation was particularly favoured by youth in the Maritimes, women, and those 15-19.

- Job training in Quebec was not seen as very important but somewhat important. Students and men were less likely than the average respondant to consider job training very important.

- Advice to set up small businesses was very important in B.C. and Quebec, among full-time workers, men and those 20-24.

4. Aspirations

- Goldfarb asked respondants to rate the importance of certain goals or aspirations. "Having a job" was by far the most important goal (87%). It was the most important goal for all youth but particularly youth in Quebec and the Maritimes, workers, the unemployed, men, and youth aged 15-19 years.

- "Furthering one's education" was the next most important goal, although full-time workers and those not in the labour force chose "owning a home" as their second choice. "Owning a home" was the third very important goal for most. "Making a lot of money" was chosen as very important by only 33% of youth, but 50% said it was moderately important.

- Youth tended to agree with the statement that the future is so uncertain that it is better to live for today. Gallup found that 70% of people aged 18-24 years agreed and 57% of those 25 and older agreed with this point of view.

5. The Economic Future

- Only 10% of youth were "very optimistic" about the country's economic future over the next five years. 45% were "somewhat optimistic" and 6% "very pessimistic". The most pessimistic were the unemployed, those not in the labour force and youth living in the Maritimes.

- Even with only 10% feeling optimistic about the country's economic future, 24% felt "very optimistic" about their own future financial state. Youth in B.C. and Ontario, workers, men and those aged 20-24 years were the most optimistic. The most pessimism was found among the unemployed (22%) compared to 16% nationally.

- Gallup respondants felt their household's financial position would get "a little better" (35%) over the next 12 months, 16% felt it would get better, 30% thought it would remain the same and 14% that it would worsen. Persons 25 years or older were far more pessimistic than youth, 45% felt there would be no change and 17% that it would worsen. Youth were slightly more dissatisfied than those 25 years and older concerning their current financial status.

APPENDIX C

The Class of 1976 University and College Graduates

THE CLASS OF 1976 UNIVERSITY AND COLLEGE GRADUATES

In an attempt to gain a better picture of the economic activity of youth graduating from universities and colleges, Statistics Canada surveyed a sample of 1976 graduates in 1978. Some of the results of this survey are reviewed here:

- two years after graduation, 85% of university graduates and almost 90% of college graduates were employed (Table C1).

- Both male and female college graduates are more likely to be working than male and female university graduates.

- College graduates are more likely to be permanent paid workers than are university graduates. Men graduating from either university or college are more likely to be self-employed than women.

- University and college graduates are as likely to be working part time; women more than men. However, college grads more often hold permanent part-time jobs, while university grads have temporary part-time positions.

- Almost half as many university grads as compared to college grads were not working for various reasons.

- College grads had higher participation rates one month after graduation but also higher unemployment rates (Table C2). However, two years later the participation rates for college grads were higher while the unemployment rates were much lower than those of university grads.

- Just over 40% of university graduates felt their job was directly related to their field of study, compared to 66% of college graduates. Almost 20% of university graduates felt there was no relationship (Table C3). However, 80% of university graduates felt their field of study's relationship was important to their job, compared to 90% of college graduates.

- Job dissatisfaction was small among both college and university graduates, and men and women alike.

- University graduates earn 25% higher incomes than college graduates. As a result, one quarter of college graduates express dissatisfaction with their salaries while only 18% of university graduates feel the same.

- Almost one-quarter of all graduates expressed regret over their choice of study.

- Over a third of all graduates were planning a return to school within two years for further post-secondary study.

- The most popular occupation for university graduates is work in elementary or secondary teaching positions, while college graduates work as nurses or therapists (Table C4). The highest incomes are for architects, engineers, physicians, dentists and veterinarians, which are all occupations filled by university educated persons. College graduates have their highest incomes in the architectural and engineering technician professions, in management support occupations, and in nursing and therapy jobs.

TABLE C1: Class of 1976 - University and college graduates employment status, by sex, 1978

Employment Status	University Graduates			College Graduates		
	All	Males	Females	All	Males	Females
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
1. Working	85.3	86.8	83.4	89.5	92.3	87.5
a. Full-time	79.6	82.5	76.0	83.8	89.4	79.8
i) paid worker	76.6	77.9	75.1	81.5	85.0	79.1
permanent	62.3	63.7	60.6	75.0	75.8	74.3
temporary	14.0	13.8	14.1	6.2	8.8	4.4
ii) self-employed	3.0	4.6	0.9	2.1	4.2	0.7
b. part-time	5.0	3.5	6.7	5.0	2.1	7.0
i) paid worker	4.8	3.3	6.4	4.8	1.8	6.7
permanent	1.8	0.9	2.7	3.2	0.7	4.8
temporary	3.0	2.3	3.6	1.5	1.0	1.8
ii) self-employed	0.2	0.1	0.3	0.3	0.2	0.2
2. Not working	14.7	13.1	16.5	10.5	7.6	12.4
a. accepted a future job	2.4	2.2	2.4	1.9	1.5	2.0
permanent	1.2	1.1	1.1	1.3	1.1	1.4
temporary	1.0	0.9	1.1	0.5	0.4	0.6
b. looking for work	5.1	4.6	5.5	4.5	4.3	4.6
c. Not looking	7.1	6.2	8.5	4.0	1.7	5.6
i) illness	0.1	-	-	0.2	-	0.2
ii) family resp.	0.9	-	1.7	1.1	-	1.8
iii)going to school	2.2	2.5	1.8	0.7	0.6	0.7
iv) no interest	0.2	-	0.3	0.2	-	0.2
v) other or no reason	3.9	3.3	4.4	1.9	0.9	2.5

Source: W. Clark and Z. Zigmond, Job Market Reality for Postsecondary Graduates, Ottawa: Statistics Canada, 1981.

TABLE C2: Participation and unemployment rates (as % of total in survey) by sex, class of 1976 university and college graduates

Labour Force Indicator	University Graduates			College Graduates		
	All	Males	Females	All	Males	Females
Participation Rate						
- 1 month after graduation	89.3	90.9	87.4	92.9	95.8	91.1
- June 1978	92.9	93.9	91.7	96.0	98.3	94.4
Unemployment Rate						
- 1 month after graduation	23.5	20.6	27.1	25.7	19.8	29.9
- June 1978	9.2	7.5	9.0	6.7	6.0	7.2
Average number of months out of work for those looking for a job one month after graduation	5.0	4.9	5.2	5.1	5.3	5.0

Source: Same as Table C1.

TABLE C3: Career development indicators of class of 1976 university and college graduates, by sex

Development Indicator	University Graduates			College Graduates		
	All	Males	Female	All	Males	Females
Relationship of job to field of study(%)						
a) direct	42.2	41.3	43.3	66.6	56.9	73.5
b) partial	39.0	39.5	38.3	22.3	29.3	17.3
c) not related	18.8	19.2	18.4	11.1	13.8	9.1
Percent who consider relation of job to field of study important	80.8	78.5	83.7	89.9	87.8	91.5
Underdevelopment(%)	34.3	31.8	37.3	25.3	30.7	21.4
Dissatisfied with job (%)	12.4	12.2	12.5	12.5	14.3	11.2
Leaving job in 3 months(%)	24.4	24.4	24.4	22.7	23.3	22.2
Annual salary ($)						
a) 10% earned less than	9,600	10,400	8,800	7,900	9,400	7,300
b) average	15,200	15,900	14,400	12,300	13,600	11,300
c) 10% earned more than	23,700	25,400	21,500	16,700	19,200	15,000
Dissatisfied with salary(%)	18.6	18.9	18.2	25.4	22.4	27.5
Regret choice of field of study	24.5	23.9	25.2	25.8	24.9	26.3
Planning return in 2 years to post-secondary(%)						
a) career reasons	39.2	39.0	39.5	34.6	37.3	32.6
b) other	8.5	7.4	10.0	5.3	4.9	5.6

Source: Same as Table C1.

TABLE C4: Most frequent occupations of class of 1976 university and college graduates employed full time June 1978, by sex

Occupation	Average Salary $	All	Males	Females
University Graduates:		100.0	100.0	100.0
1. Elementary and secondary school teaching & related occupations	15,800	29.5	20.3	41.3
2. Senior & middle managers	17,200	7.4	9.3	4.9
3. Management support	14,500	6.9	9.4	3.6
4. Architects & engineers	18,200	4.8	7.8	1.0
5. Vocational, community college and specialised teachers	16,000	4.1	2.8	5.7
6. Lawyers and other law occupations	16,100	3.2	4.2	1.9
7. Social, welfare & community workers	14,100	2.8	1.8	4.2
8. Salespeople	13,900	1.8	3.6	1.6
9. Mathematicians, statisticians, computer scientists	16,100	2.7	3.6	1.5
10. Physicians, dentists, veterinarians	18,800	2.4	3.5	1.1
11. Other	13,500	33.4	33.7	33.2
College Graduates:		100.0	100.0	100.0
1. Nurses, therapists	13,000	20.0	1.9	34.4
2. Stenographers & typists	9,100	6.8	-	12.1
3. Pharmacists, dieticians, optometrists, medical & dental technicians	12,400	6.5	1.9	10.0
4. Architect & engineering technicians, draughting, surveyors	13,500	5.5	12.1	0.8
5. Salespeople	11,600	4.6	6.9	3.1
6. Senior & middle Managers	12,600	4.3	5.7	3.2
7. Finance & statistical clerks	9,600	4.2	3.0	5.1
8. Management support	13,100	3.1	4.6	1.9
9. Elementary & secondary school teachers	8,900	2.7	-	2.8
10. General office clerks	10,000	2.6	1.3	3.6
11. Other	12,500	39.7	62.1	23.0

Source: Same as Table C1.

APPENDIX D

The Whole Economy

THE WHOLE ECONOMY

The traditional responses to youth economic problems are not all necessarily wrong in substance, they simply are not applied to the whole spectrum of possible economic activities in a modern economy. The following diagram and description provides some insight into what is meant by the whole economy.

Whole Economy

Formal Economy — Informal Economy

Community sector

Corporate	Public	Cooperatives & collectives	Voluntary activity	Household
		Small & self-employed Businesses	Community organisations & enterprises	Mutual aid barter, skills exchange

Corporate Sector

Most people are generally well acquainted with productive activity in the corporate sector. When the press, politicians and policy makers talk about the "business" sector, or about "big business", it is usually corporate activity they are referring to. It is also the corporate sector that J.K. Galbraith refers to as the planning system.

In terms of its physical and organisational structure, firms in this sector are large employers of generally more than fifty people, but production processes tend to be capital intensive. Generally, the work force is unionised by a large and well organised union, and employee rewards and conditions of work are subject to negotiation.

Public Sector

The public sector needs little elaboration since its activities are easily recognised and defined by most economic observers. Included in the public sector are employees of all levels of government: federal, provincial, regional and local. Public administrators, teachers in public schools, police officers, public hospital personnel are all considered public employees.

In distinction to the corporate sector, there is not a concern with producing a dollar profit. Consequently, public sector production need not be guided by the sometimes harsh demands imposed by conditions in the domestic and international marketplace.

The Small Business and Self-Employed Sector

This sector has certain of the characteristics of the public and corporate sectors, has its own distinct features, and also shades into community activities. Let us begin with the more traditional small business sector.

Traditional Small Business - there are no hard and fast rules for defining small business. But there is a sharp conceptual difference between the enterprise that is fully under the command of an individual and owes its success to this circumstance and the firm which would not exist without organisation.

The small business sector more than the corporate sector is representative of market or free enterprise economics where price competition is still stiff and survival is hazardous. Small enterprises seldom enjoy advantages such as the luxury of large accumulated profits; restricted competition which allows cost increases to be passed more easily to the public; access to prime bank rates; large advertising budgets; open doors to political decision-makers and regulatory bodies; and the many other advantages that are conferred upon their large corporate brothers.

Because there are few employees in each firm, and the enterprise is frequently owner-managed there is less need for hierarchical, centralised forms of organisation and decision-making. There will be more face-to-face interaction between the employer and employee and often they will work side by side. Whether or not the owner-manager consults with or encourages the workers to speak out on the operation of the business will vary according to the personalities and attitudes of individual owners, but in contrast to the corporate and public sectors, the possibility always exists since there is much more face-to-face interaction.

Family businesses - This type of productive activity can function between two extremes. At one extreme the family business may operate like the traditional small business with the family head acting as the authoritative owner-employer and other family members being treated as employees. At the other extreme, the business may operate as an economic extension of the family where decisions are made on a more consensual basis, and relationships are along familial rather than employer/employee lines.

In contrast to traditional businesses, an important objective of some family businesses is that they are in part an extension of their family life-style and as much a social as an economic institution. In this context, business and family roles can be difficult to distinguish, whereas in the corporate and public sectors private (family) and public (busfness) roles are quite distinct.

"Briarpatch" enterprises - The resemblance is very close between this form of economic activity and certain forms of community enterprise. The essential difference is that briarpatch enterprises are initiated and are owned privately, either by a person or a small group of people. Briarpatch economic activities are not currently widely established in Canada, but they do represent forms of small business and self-employed acitivity that could and probably will become attractive alternatives.

Briarpatch activities are so named after a loose cooperative grouping of about one hundred San Francisco new-age, small businesses. The Briarpatch is a network of small business people who have three values in common: they are doing what they are doing because they enjoy it; they find their major reward in

serving people rather than in amassing sums of money; and they share certain resources with each other. Moreover they keep their books and financial records open to the friends and community members they serve. Briarpatch enterprises are also self-sustaining, relying on the sale of their goods and services to the public for their revenue needs.

Collective and Cooperative Enterprises

Different enterprises refer to themselves variously as collectives or cooperatives (or cooperative communities), so an attempt is made to define the two according to how they are most commonly differentiated by practice. It is also necessary to keep in mind that public legislation often defines minimum forms, practices, activities, etc. that cooperatives must adhere to in order to qualify for advantageous tax and other regulations. Thus an enterprise may call itself a co-op but not in fact be so in the strict legal sense set down by the relevant legislation.

Collectives - These enterprises are privately owned by their members like briarpatches, but there is much wider ownership. What distinguishes collectives from "group capitalism" is the strong element of community outreach that pervades the goals of the collective.

Collectives may also follow fairly traditional business practices and ventures and then reach out to communities by using their profits to support community groups or activities such as women's centres, other collectives, community newspapers and so on.

From the viewpoint of style of management and ownership, collectives can be similar to many community enterprises. Collectives have a reasonably broad ownership base and decisions are taken collectively through a consensual approach. Collectives may or may not hire employees, but when they do, the employees will almost certainly share the general values of the members of the collective. What differentiates collectives from most community enterprise activities is the source of funding. Whereas collectives rely for the bulk of their revenue needs through the sale of their goods and services to the public, usually at full-cost prices, community organisations rely much more heavily on individual, corporate, and public grants and donations with a reduced dependency on proceeds from the sale of their goods and services to the public.

Cooperatives - Cooperatives frequently represent a form of collective. But because cooperatives can take many forms, frequently become very large, and constitute special legal entities under various public laws, they must be treated separately from collectives. It is also necessary to differentiate between the "cooperative movement" or the spirit of cooperation and the actual cooperative institutions and arrangements which will to varying degrees put into practice the spirit of cooperation.

In addition to the larger better known and more formalised co-ops (which on the surface may bear striking resemblances to corporations) there exist smaller cooperative business ventures often requiring considerable member participation in the production process itself. Cooperative day-care centres, food and housing co-ops, and cooperative garages are a few of the existing enterprises which frequently require members to directly contribute their time and labour.

In these smaller type co-ops, where membership is limited, each member has a direct voice in the operation Management style and organisational structure are informal, and decisions are often reached by consensus. There may or may not be a paid manager or coordinator as well as other paid employees, but when there are they will frequently also be members of the co-op. These smaller co-ops are similar in nature to collectives in terms of their style.

Co-ops can take many different forms, and while the principles of cooperation are common to each, they are practiced to different degrees. There are four basic forms of cooperatives.

The first form is a cooperative community, sometimes referred to as an intentional community. These are usually located in rural areas and the members of these communities are dedicated to living their whole lives in a cooperative fashion. These communities represent the "purest" application of the principles of the cooperative movement.

The second form of cooperative enterprise is that which sells "for" its members. These co-ops are sometimes called producer or worker co-ops. There are two main types of producer co-ops. The first is a marketing co-op in which farmers, craftsmen and other independent business people organise to retail their product directly to the public, avoiding middlemen and sharing the savings or passing some on to the public.

The other type of producer cooperative is more fundamentally opposed to the current industrial system. A real workers' co-op displaces the normal industrial arrangement of owner-employer and employee. In a workers' co-op, the workers are owner, employer and employee. Management is drawn from the workers themselves and decisions are reached only after the full participation of all workers.

The third form of cooperative enterprise is that which sells "to" its members. This form of cooperation is often called a consumers' co-op. These co-ops generally buy commodities, buildings, services and so on at reduced prices and pass the savings on to co-op members.

The fourth form of cooperative enterprise is the cooperative credit union.In effect it sells to and for its members. It takes the savings of its members and lends some of these to its members. It is a way in which an association of people can combine together to raise money and keep it within the confines of the community or association.

In conclusion, co-ops, like collectives, share with traditional small businesses and corporations one similarity: business survival. If collectives and co-ops are unable to produce enough income to sustain their own members then they disappear. If organisations come to rely on public funding then they become community non-profit associations.

Community Organisations and Enterprises

When membership is broad, cooperatives and collectives can resemble community enterprise activities, and we do not wish to draw too fine a distinction among the different activities. However, as mentioned earlier, community enterprise activities are basically different because they have secured the bulk of their revenue needs from public subscription, e.g. individual, corporate and

public grants, donations, membership fees, etc. These community organisations do not generally charge full-cost prices for their goods or services, and in some cases do not charge at all. Generating a self-sustaining profit level from sales, which is a harsh reality for co-ops and collectives, is not nearly as important a factor for community enterprise organisations (if a factor at all).

Because community organisations and enterprises are publicly owned they are always controlled in varying degrees by the community and accountable to it, rather than to a limited private ownership. What are typical community non-profit activities? At the local level, they are respresented by community day-care centres, multi-purpose neighbourhood community centres, services to the aged, storefront legal-aid clinics or amalgams of services produced by community development corporations.

There is a great diversity among community organisations and to include them all under one heading and a single definition renders some of them an injustice. One type of community enterprise organisation, particularly important from an economic standpoint, but somewhat different from the rest (and not yet well understood), is the community development corporation. These organisations tend to be more involved in comprehensive local economic development, e.g. skill and employment development, community infrastructure development (schools, housing, clinics, etc.), as well as in the provision of social services and needed goods.

Community development corporations are community owned, dependent on a wide range of public support mechanisms, do not hesitate to use more traditional lines of credit to start up with, often charge fair market rates for services rendered, and seek out delicate balances of economic (revenue raising) and social projects in order to remain self-supporting, i.e. secure continuous funding of a public and private nature.

The output of this sector is targeted very much towards broad social and economic improvement although some groups pursue other objectives, for example,the development of recreation and athletic activities, and arts and cultural pursuits. At the local level the social "output" of community enterprises consists of goods and services provided directly to a special needs clientèle, usually without charge or at subsidised rates.

The "ownership" of these organisations is public. In some cases a government department will virtually "own" an organisation since it provides the major source of funding, and in return the organisation may be required to fulfil specific functions, e.g. to provide day-care services (in which case the government is doing no more than contracting out for a service it feels responsible for providing). In other cases where an organisation is "widely held" the organisation can be deemed to be owned by its board of directors drawn from the public and acting on its behalf.

The organisation of the work-place will also vary with the attitude of the board and the chief manager's style. Larger organisations often have hierarchical structures, but smaller community organisations will often be very open, both to staff and volunteers, and decision-making will be consensual. Since the ownership of and final responsibility for community based organisations is public and not private, at least the rationale is there to allow for more collective decision-making processes.

Voluntary Activity

Voluntary activity cannot exactly be defined as a distinct sector; it is more like a special form of activity particularly attached to community organisations described in the previous section.

The majority of established community organisations (sometimes called voluntary organisations) were founded on voluntary effort, and as we noted above, it is usually volunteer boards that keep community organisations accountable to the community at large. But as these organisations have matured, and especially so in this century, the paid activity component (bureaucratisation and professionalisation) has beome more significant. In many cases while the efforts of volunteers first gives rise to paid employment opportunities within the organisation, the community organisation itself then goes on to provide expanded opportunities for volunteers. It is doubtful that within most on-going organisations either type of worker could survive without the assistance and support of the other.

Mutual Aid, Barter and Skills Exchange

Between voluntary activity and the household sector exists an important category of productive activity. In its simplest terms we are describing the cooperation or assistance in production provided by neighbours or members of a close community. In its most romantic and pictureque forms taken from the past this assistance is characterised by communal barn-raisings and quilting bees; but today it takes form in neighbours jointly constructing a garage, exchanging skills or bartering produce or home-crafted goods, sharing tools, establishing car pools, shared child-minding responsibilities and so on.

What makes neighbourly cooperation distinct from market and household activity is that no money is exchanged for the labour, and assistance extends beyond the members of the household, even though the activity is usually in aid of household production (although a neighbour sometimes offers unpaid assistance to a friend in a business situation).

While some neighbourly cooperation takes place through the age-old system of goods bartering, a rather unique form of barter is emerging which is known as "skills exchange". A skills exchange can operate on a very small basis or it can become quite complex and widespread in an urban community. It consists of people providing a number of hours to the exchange's membership in return for an equal number of hours of other members' skills. Unlike neighbourly cooperation in its simpler forms, however, a large urban skills exchange can resemble the familiar monetised exchange activity of markets since members need never know or meet each other, and members build up credits in the exchange to be used for "purchasing" other members' skills. Practiced on a smaller scale, however, a skills exchange resembles older and simpler forms of neighbourly cooperation or mutual aid.

Household Sector

This important sector is likely the biggest single producer of goods and services in the whole economy. Yet it is probably the sector that is least recognised, valued and understood. However, economists have increasingly been turning their attention to this sector and recognising its economic importance. Titles such as "Home Inc." and "The Emerging Self-Service Economy" are indicative of new works that, bolstered by the feminist movement, have emphasised the significant economic contributions made by the household.

One reason why household productive activity has gone unrecognised by economists is that household production is not priced and exchanged. Consequently, it is difficult to estimate in quantitative terms. Additionally, one may ask, what is productive activity in the home? Cleaning dishes, repairing the washer, driving a child to a ball game, shaving, are these all productive activities? It could be claimed that the act of waking oneself up is a productive economic activity (i.e. hotels incur a financial cost performing this service for their guests).

Where do we draw the line between economic production in the household and strictly social, personal and consumption activities related to daily living? At the outset, no definition is going to yield mutually exclusive categories. However, a definition of household production suggested in 1934 is as good as any in singling out household activities that bear a relationship to activity carried out in the market sector, and which we would generally refer to as economic. Households production consists of those unpaid activities which are carried on, by and for the members, which activities might be replaced by market goods, or paid services, if circumstances such as income, market conditions, and personal inclinations permit the service being delegated to someone outside the household group.

To further our understanding, the following concrete examples of what would be considered household production may be helpful: most housework; maintenance of house and equipment; food production and preparation; some child care and education; some home entertainment and recreation; much transportation,and so on. In general, household production will consist mostly of activities that the majority of households in industrialised nations to some extent and at various times already "contract out" to the market or public sectors.

REFERENCES

REFERENCES

Canadian Federation of Independent Business, "A Full-Employment Future", MacDonald Commission Brief, December 1, 1983.

Clark W., and Z. Zsigmond. Job Market Realities for Post-Secondary Graduates, Statistics Canada; Ottawa 1981. Catalogue 81-572E.

Demers, Linda. "Young People: A Statistical Overview", Secretary of State, May 1982.

Employment and Immigration Canada, "Youth in the Labour Force: Report of a Survey on Young Peoples' Labour Market Experience and Attitudes", April 1980.

- "Youth Labour Market Experience in Canada: An Analytical Overview" May 1983.

Gallup, "Survey on Young Peoples' Attitudes, May 1982" (unpublished).

Goldfarb Consultants, "Topline Findings, Youth Study", October 1982 (unpublished).

- "Youth Attitudes: A Qualitative Perspective", n.d. (unpublished).

- "Questionnaire", n.d. (unpublished).

Kettle, John. The Big Generation, McClelland and Stewart Ltd., Toronto, 1980.

Lanphier, Michael, and Ann Perez. "Youth Canada: Problems and Prospects, A Review of the Literature", Secretary of State, August 1983.

O.E.C.D., A Medium Term Strategy for Employment and Manpower Policies, Paris, 1978.

- Youth Without Work, Paris, 1981.

- Direct Job Creation in the Public Sector, Paris, 1980.

- "The Possibilities for Employment Creation in the Third Sector", prepared for an O.E.C.D. Conference, February 1984, on employment and structural change by Franco Archibugi; and "The Economic and Social Role of Local Level Employment Initiatives: An Outline Report", prepared by the secretariat for the same conference.

Ross, David P. and Peter Usher. The Social Economy, Vanier Institute of the Family (forthcoming).

Ross, David P. The Canadian Fact Book on Poverty - 1983. James Lorimer Ltd., Toronto, 1983.

- The Canadian Fact Book on Income Distribution, CCSD, Ottawa, 1980.

Statistics Canada, Census of Canada, 1961. Catalogue 92-552.

- Census of Canada, 1971. Catalogues 92-715, 92-730, 92-743, 93-718, 93-720, 93-721, 93-723, and 94-702.

- Census of Canada, 1976. Catalogues 92-825, 93-833, 94-802, and 94-804.

- Census of Canada, 1981. Catalogues 92-901 and 92-905.

- "Characteristics of Migrants to Alberta and British Columbia, 1976-80" in The Labour Force' February 1982, Catalogue 71-001.

- Family Expenditure in Canada: Volume 3. 1978. Catalogue 62-551.

- "Full Time and Part Time Unemployment Rates", in The Labour Force, July 1983, Catalogue 13-207.

- The Labour Force (and Labour Force Survey). 1975-1983. Catalogue 71-001.

- Patterns of Full- and Part-Year Employment and Unemployment, 1977-80, Catalogue 71-531.

- Population Projections for Canada, 1976-2001. Catalogue 91-520, 1979.

- "Profile Studies: Labour Force Participation in Canada" in the Census of Canada, 1971.

- "Special Study on Migration", in The Labour Force, May 1983. Catalogue 71-001.

- "Some Comments and Statistical Information Regarding Programs for Youth Employment". February 1983 (unpublished memo).

- Workmen's/Workers' Compensation, 1980, Catalogue 86-501.

RESEARCH REPORTS ON YOUTH

RAPPORTS DE RECHERCHE SUR LES JEUNES

- Linguistic Characteristics of Young People and their Attitudes to Language Issues/Caractéristiques et attitudes des jeunes face aux questions linguistiques, Robert Bourbeau, June/juin 1984, 46p.

- Portrait of Youth Crime/La criminalité chez les jeunes, Louise Biron and/et Danielle Gauvreau, December/décembre 1984, 139p.

- Youth Economic Activity/Les jeunes et l'activité économique, David Ross, December/décembre 1984, 120p.

- Youth Health in Canada: Trends, Assessment and Psychosocial Aspects/La santé des jeunes au Canada: bilan, tendances et aspects psychosociaux, Michel Tousignant, March/mars 1985, 99p.

- Youth and Education: A Study of 15-24 Year-Olds in the Canadian Education Systems/ Les jeunes et l'éducation: une étude des 15-24 ans dans les systèmes d'éducation au Canada, Louise Dallaire and/et Jacques Belleau, November/novembre 1985, 136 p.

- Some Dimensions of the Social Integration of Canadian Youth/Quelques dimensions de l'insertion sociale de la jeunesse canadienne, Carmen Frenette, publication pending/à paraître.

- Young People and the Family: Some Demographic Aspects/Les jeunes et la famille: Quelques aspects démographiques, Linda Demers, publication pending/à paraître.

***

- Young People - A Statistical Overview/Aperçu statistique sur les jeunes, Linda Demers, May/mai 1982, 37p.

- Youth Canada: Problems and Prospects - A Review of the Literature/ Jeunesse Canada: Problèmes et perspectives - Une revue de la littérature, C. Michael Lanphier and/et Ann Perez, August/août 1983, 65p.